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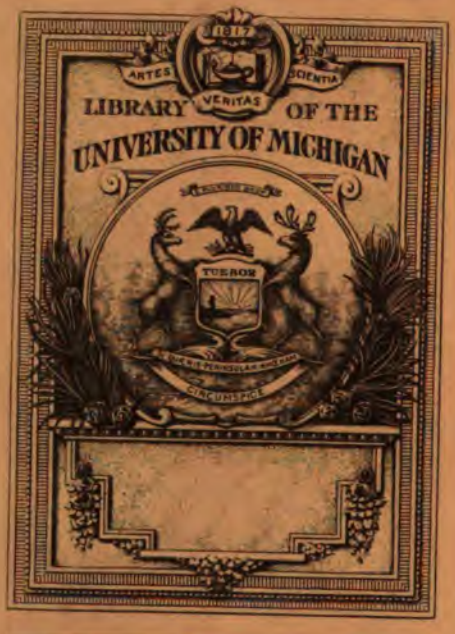

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OCTOBER, 1897 TO MARCH, 1898

Every person has two educations, one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—Gibbon.

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SELF CULTURE

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TRUSTS: HOW TO DEAL WITH THEM.

EXCITING to this generation is the problem of dealing with the modern Trust. The subject can hardly be said to be under discussion, for the public seem to have got beyond consideration and to be engaged in denunciation, as of a thing that has been adjudicated and condemned. Here and there journals like the New York "Sun" and the "Evening Post," perceive that the question is not one-sided, that trusts are a natural industrial development not without advantages to society, but they make little impression with their apologies upon a people convinced that trusts are an abomination and who are also inflamed with political excitement.

The problem has been made a political one, and every party is trying to avail itself of this fact to secure for itself the support of the general anti-monopoly sentiment. It suffers, therefore, from all the exaggerations, demagogery, falsities of fact and of theory, and obscurities that always attend popular campaigning. It suffers, also, in legislative halls, not only from the same influences, but from the complications of log-rolling and jugglery incident to any measure affecting trade and industrial interests. It is not to the legislatures of the country that we can go for light upon political issues, where men loudly champion a popular cause with their lips while they entangle and defeat it with their votes. The ordinary legislator is usually between the devil of private moneyed interest and the deep sea of proletariat popularity, and is tossed with conflicting interests. His situation shows itself in statutes that will not work. He is a rare legislator who escapes the accusation of venality however he votes on questions involving money-making. Thus, corruption was charged upon congressmen equally when the McKinley Tariff of 1890, which did not tax sugar at all, was passed, when the Wilson-Gorman Tariff was enacted by a Democratic Congress, and when the Dingley-Aldrich bill of the Republicans became a law.

There has been much legislation in recent years to restrain great corporations and combinations from oppressing the people, but none of it has solved the problem or resulted in an efficient statute. The Inter-state Commerce Law of 1889 and the Anti-Trust Law of 1890, both Federal statutes, are found by the courts to be inadequate to achieve their professed purpose, or to be unconstitutional and impracticable in some vital provision. States like New York, Georgia, Illinois, Kansas and Texas, have passed laws to put down trusts, but these are found to stop enterprise, drive away foreign capital, and jeopardize both public and private credit. Seeing these miscarriages of legislation, the public easily convinces itself that such results were contemplated and that the hand of self-interest and corruption has been at work to render the popular purpose futile. It is natural that, when legislators are called upon to enact measures adversely affecting commerce and industry, they should become bewildered with the complexity of the problem, timid as to consequences, and hence, by amendments and obscurities of language, emit statutes that shall work as little

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change as possible, while seeming to be in the general interest. But a real trouble may also lie in the intricacy of a half-comprehended problem.

Concerning this class of legislation, so far as it has yet gone, it may not be unfair to say of it, whether national or state, that "owing to the emasculation and restriction these statutes have experienced at the hands of jurists, most of them have practically become dead letters." Some of the difficulty, however, is inherent in the subject-matter. These enactments aim to deal with new conditions of life, the scope and nature of which are not yet clearly discerned. For example, under the terms of the Anti-Trust Law, it is immaterial whether the combination in restraint of trade is made by corporations or by individuals. In point of fact, and this is material to the present argument, these combinations are usually made by incorporations. But of this the law takes no notice. Now here is a statute that distinctly impairs the right of free contract. How far can legislation carry such a restriction? Any formidable use of it would revolutionize our system of government.

Again, the interference by law with private contracts, not fraudulent, tends directly to government control of trade, and it was out of such control that the old despotic system of monopolies arose. Once more, can the courts enforce laws which seriously restrain the right of contract? Would not men go on and build up a system of trade outside of the statutes, until, in the general acceptance of such a system, the courts would be paralyzed, either from inability to secure a conviction, or from dread of a business catastrophe ruinous to the country? Interference with the liberty of citizens to do business as they may find it best, is a question both complicated and hazardous, and very few know under what limitations it is either wise or practicable.

We are now confronted with two questions on which clearness of thought is needed: First, are there any evils arising out of combinations and manipulations of capital that ought to be removed? Second, how is it practicable to legislate their extirpation? Undoubtedly there are very serious and also removable evils, but it is possible their real seat and nature are not rightly discerned. It is socially monstrous that men in a single lifetime should from poverty grow into the possession of scores of millions of dollars worth of property. To the end of all time the people will kick at that phenomenon, even if they are not able to tell why it is monstrous. There is an instinct deep in the soul of every reflecting man, that such estates cannot be honestly accumulated, and that they are *prima facie* evidence that the people have been defrauded to build them up.

It is possible, of course, for men to discover some natural wealth, as the Kimberly diamond mines, a coal deposit, an Alaskan lake of petroleum or asphalt, or a Comstock lode of the noble metals, that legitimately make them millionaires. Some have become very rich, and deservedly so, by inventions that have greatly increased the productiveness of labor, as the sewing-machine, the telephone, the dynamo, the steam-engine. Some have also become wealthy in a way not exposed to envy or denunciation, through enterprise, as by creating new outlets for traffic, or by introducing economies and stopping waste of administration, or by finding mercantile uses for by-products. But none of these natural sources of wealth ever made their discoverer or inventor many times a millionaire through their legitimate industrial applications. Handsome, but not gigantic, estates have become accumulated by royalties and plain, pure trade. A new function is required to raise a man above the plane of abundant competence and make him a conspicuous plutocrat. That is the function of the "promoter,"—the man who does the financing of jobs, the *entrepreneur* who handles other peoples' inventions and property, either to exploit them, or the multitude which has need of them.

In this process the first step is to incorporate a company to control the new industry. We may well stop to ask why this step is necessary. Why cannot the individual just as well manage his own property and make all there is out of it? Simply because a private person has to transact business in a more responsible way than a corporation. He cannot double and quadruple his nominal capital by watered stock; he cannot borrow money to depreciate his own estate, as a railroad does when it issues bonds to make its stock worthless; he can-

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not, without a charter, restrict his liability for contracted debts to such amount as he is willing to risk in business. If he commits a fraud he has to pay the penalty with his purse and his body, as a corporation does not. The only frauds a member of a corporation is likely to be punished for are those he commits against the company. On account of these qualities conferred by a charter, it comes about that there are few huge modern fortunes, either in America or Europe, that have not been made by the manipulation of corporate property. There is not an inventor of large estate who does not owe the bulk of his wealth to the corporations to which he has transferred his patents. It was not mining in the Comstock lode that made its owners millionaires, but inside speculation in its securities. It was not dividends that enriched the managers of Pacific Railroads, but plundering the roads and their creditors with impunity.

There is no reason why a corporate body cannot do business as honorably as a private individual. There are some chartered institutions that do so, especially the national banks, whose operations the government prescribes and scrutinizes. There are trust companies that thrive and do not speculate, although these make their greatest profits as receivers and reorganizers of corporations. Well-established manufacturing companies do an honest business, though they are sometimes sold out by the sheriff. It is possible for men acting under charters to do business on the same lines as a private person; but in fact some do not, and hence the individual acting by himself seldom accumulates so large a fortune as can be gathered through the misuse of corporate powers.

These facts are pretty widely understood and they give rise to the conviction that great wealth, such as, in these days, overwhelms the imagination, are the products of dishonesty. An ingenuous man could not contemplate doing many things done in some lines of corporate business without compunctions of conscience. It is necessary to sophisticate him first. For to take money without rendering any return for it—without adding to the world's wealth or performing any useful service—is not honest. To take it merely by juggling with securities and changing their values, is not honest. John Ruskin has somewhere said that no man was worth to the world $30,000 a year, because no man has the capacity to earn it. The sum is arbitrary, but, double or treble it, if a man is entitled only to what he can earn by real service rendered, then it would take a long life of exceptional ability and frugality to put by a million dollars. Nor are these great fortunes originally made by speculation. The amassing of millions is done by a deliberate contrivance.

The anecdote is told of Jay Gould, that, when once solicited to embark in speculation on the London Exchange, he told the advocate of such a scheme this: "Your plan is very plausible. I have only one objection to it. I never speculate." He operated in stocks only when he had a sure thing, or when he could control them. Take a very common operation to illustrate one method. The managers of a solvent dividend-paying railroad conclude to acquire by lease a tributary line that is not solvent. To do this they guarantee a six per cent. dividend on the stock of the tributary road to be paid out of the earnings of the solvent road. The moment the transaction comes to light in the market, the stock of the main line sinks in value, while that of the tributary line rises to or above par. In the process the manipulators in advance "sell short" all their holdings in the solvent company and buy all they can get of the poorer road. They even borrow all the money they can to carry their contracts on a margin, and they do this work before announcing the deal. When the facts are bruited about, and these securities have settled to their changed values, the operators deliver the stock they bought short, and sell the stock they were long on, making money in both ways. There are thousands of men, who, by thus violating their trust, have found themselves in a few days richer by hundreds of thousands of dollars, and all they have done is to change, by votes in directors' meetings, the relative values of securities entrusted to them.

What has happened in the process to the public? No wealth really has been made. The world is not a penny richer. Those who owned stock in the solvent

road find themselves poorer by the fall in its market value; those who sold out their holdings in the insolvent road have parted with property which they would never have given up at the price, if they had known the facts. What has been thus lost to them goes to make the fortunes the managers of the deal have taken to themselves. In a word, their gains have been "hocus pocussed" out of other men. Where else could it have come from? The men who have negotiated these deals did not operate with their own property; they were trustees for the company they wrecked; they dealt in the investments of people whom they impoverished. Surely it takes a sophisticated man to do this; doubly sophisticated if on the next Sunday he passes the collection plate at a communion service.

This is only one of the least gross filchings of corporate management, and it is common,—very common. Add to it the practice of declaring and withholding dividends in order to trade in stocks on 'change; the watering of stock, or increasing the capitalization of a company beyond its power to earn interest and dividends; the paying of exorbitant and speculative prices for the good-will of some concern that is to be bought out; and the methods by which money is taken from small investors and piled into the estates of promoters are not hard to understand.

Says J. P. Meany, in a recent publication, after computing that $750,000,000 of the railroad stock in existence is duplicated in the estimates of the total investment, "how much of the remainder was issued without cash consideration it is impossible to ascertain, but it is within the bounds of safety to say that of the $3,250,000,000 stock now outstanding not more than $1,250,000,000 is full paid stock." The result of such baseless capitalization is bankruptcy to the overloaded companies, and a menace of insolvency to their competitors. As "Poor's Manual" said a dozen years ago: "The stoppage or reduction of dividends on these great lines created profound apprehension and distrust as to the value of all railroad properties. The earnings of other great trunk lines suffered in like manner, if not to the same extent. A general disruption of the relations previously existing between the companies was the inevitable result. . . . Railroads, unfortunately, seem to reverse the rule of 'the survival of the fittest' to the 'survival of the unfittest.' They can be used for but one purpose, and when they go into the hands of receivers, they are to be run so long as the operating expenses can be paid."

Under such an over-capitalization there is only this alternative: the companies must go into bankruptcy, or they must make enough on their passenger and freight traffic to pay dividends and interest on immense sums of money that never were furnished. Either they must defraud the holders of stock and bonds, or they must extort unfair remuneration from the public which uses the road. Meanwhile, the ingenious promoters of the scheme, always aware of the impending crash, manipulate the market and get rid of their holdings by unloading them on ignorant investors.

The process now described is by no means confined to transportation. Railroads have been cited simply because their affairs are better understood and the facts are more authentic. The same thing goes on, as it has long gone on, in scores of different interests. To make such management lucrative to the promoters, it seems necessary that the interests in question, and this is important to bear in mind for several reasons, shall be susceptible of being monopolized. In these days a very large part of our industry is carried on by corporations because these limit the liability of the capitalists engaged in them to the amount of their stock, or in some instances, as banks, to twice that amount. The investor is able to calculate in advance just what he is willing to risk, and, if the corporation becomes insolvent, he can have something reserved to live upon. With private partnerships this is not so. Here a man has to give up his last cent to his creditors.

Equity would seem to demand that the same liability should follow a man into a corporation, which is, after all, nothing else than a form of partnership. Why is it that a legislative provision should confer upon a company a right to contract debts that it need not pay, when an individual is permitted no such immunity? The usual answers to this question are, first, that a corporation, since its capital and its liabilities are known to

the world, only enjoys a corresponding credit, and society is protected against it in everything but its own imprudence or bad judgment. This argument amounts to but little, since those who do business with a corporation do not know, until too late, when it has transcended the safety line of debt, and, further, in point of fact, the credit of individuals is more circumscribed than that of a chartered body. A second argument is that the limited liability of the investor greatly promotes enterprise, thus creating new taxable wealth, new conveniences and developments, and new demands for labor. Hence it is good public policy.

Under this system, which is constantly expanding to embrace new interests, there is a large field of corporate activity that is sound. As has already been stated, our banks and financial institutions are exceptionally safe. Our large textile mills, our great printing houses, many of our factories, indeed most of the corporations engaged in production, are normal and without offense. They do not over-capitalize and then issue bonds to kill the stock. If they desired to do so, they have not sufficient credit; their securities are not listed on stock exchanges to become the shuttle-cocks of speculators; they as yet are incapable of combining all industries of their class into one trust; if they are very lucrative new capital seeks the same sort of investment, in order to share the profits, and the fear of this restrains industrial corporations from trifling with their credit.

There is a line where safe methods begin to disappear. It is the line of practical monopolization. Monopoly inflames the imagination of avarice. There are no bounds to its speculative profits. The absolute control of a product or a convenience seems capable of unrestricted extortion. As a matter of fact, these dreams are seldom realized, because the insatiate greed of monopoly promoters leads them to miscalculations that end in bankruptcy; or, what is worse, these promoters are in such eager haste to awake in the morning millionaires, that they do not care whether their schemes are sound or not. They expect to complete their deal and clean out before the crash comes, leaving a bankrupt concern in the hands of their misled dupes. Their reliance is on the credulity and greed of those who, equally with themselves, wish something for nothing, but who are not "let in on the ground floor." We have the failed whiskey, cordage, rubber, gas, and kindred trusts, as well as railroads in receivers' hands, for examples.

Those great combinations that succeed in floating vast amounts of watered stock rest, as a rule, upon some public franchise, or some patent, or upon some production limited as to its sources. They control railways and street tramways, telegraphs and gas works, which have for their basis rights of way and construction granted by law; they control telephones, electric lights, and motors, as they once did sewing machines, founded upon patents; they control oil and anthracite because the areas of production are restricted, whiskey and sugar because the distilleries and refineries are few, and because, as objects of heavy taxation, the government pressure unites them in interest; they control tobacco for a like reason; and for obvious reasons, as the fewness of the factories and plants necessary to supply the market, they control the production of cordage, biscuit, matches, wire, etc. In nearly every case the ingredients of extortion and dishonor are misuse of corporate powers, monopoly, and indebtedness for which there is no value received.

Not long since a certain trust was summoned into a United States Court to answer why it should not be put into the hands of receivers. The petitioners averred that the plants turned into the trust had only a capital of $5,000,000, against which the trustees had issued certificates for $30,000,000. This tremendous increase of capitalization was defended on the ground that heavy premiums were paid for good-will, and the court held that this was legitimate. If what has gone for good-will, as it may be called, in the consolidation of the great trusts, as in oil, coal, sugar, tobacco, gas, cordage, whiskey, breweries, electric contrivances, street railways, telegraphs, etc., were computed, it would probably be found that of them, as of railways, hardly forty cents on a dollar has ever been paid up on their stock and that they too have a billion of dollars on the market either in worthless securities or in securities that must be kept profitable by an unnecessary mulct

on the purse of the people. Unnecessary, because, although it is true that trusts have cheapened prices by the economies that they enforce, they owe the public the still cheaper service that can be secured by an upright administration.

Thus far no distinction has been made between trusts and incorporations. Practically there is little difference between them. Strictly a trust is an organization that controls a number of corporations, and is itself managed by a committee or board of trustees. These corporations surrender the control of all or a majority of their stock to the trustees, who issue to represent it, and as much more *pro rata* capital as may be agreed upon, certificates on which dividends are to be paid. Now it is the over-capitalization,—the gigantic sums that represent good-will—that does the mischief. To stagger under mountains of debt created not by borrowing, answering to no value received, these corporations or combinations are obliged to economize by shutting up factories, dismissing workmen, crushing out rivals, lowering wages, and, lastly, by advancing prices. Advance of prices is put last because it is a fact that it is last resorted to. The combinations, as a rule, grow bankrupt first. It is true that freights, passenger and telegraph rates, beer, sugar, whiskey, tobacco, etc., are cheaper since they have become controlled by pools and trusts than they were before, and they are likely to remain so, because if they do not, rival investments of capital are sure to ensue.

Again, it is heedlessly said that trade combinations are a restraint upon trade by putting an end to free competition. It is difficult to see how they restrain trade when they supply all its demands at prices so low as to prevent rivalry. As for competition, that is the very factor that gives rise to the trust. The last feat of competition is to cut its own throat. The combination is the necessary and certain, ultimate end of competition. Indeed, the late Professor J. E. Cairnes showed quite conclusively a quarter of a century ago, that free competition is misunderstood. "In any organized society," he argued, "there can hardly be the ready transfer of capital from one employment to another, which is the indispensable condition of free competition; while class distinctions render it impossible for labor to transfer itself readily to new occupations." He regarded society "as consisting of a series of non-competing industrial groups, with free competition among the members of one group or class," that is, chiefly among wage-earners engaged in the same occupation. It is by cutting labor that men who have invested capital in industry beyond recall compete with each other; when there is no chance of rivalry here they combine.

We now reach a point where the elements of the problem become clear. A trust is no more to be feared than a corporation, of which it is only an expansion. Historically, it does not raise prices, but cheapens commodities, and it is an inevitable development of industrial growth. To forbid it by law is arbitrary, for there is no moral wrong in combining, and what assumed wrong there is is only statute-made. To repress it, laws and courts must interfere with the free right of honest contract, and to move in that direction tends to State socialism and is revolutionary to the last degree.

Yet there are wrongs to redress—wrongs that violate eternal ethics and that no sophistry can whiten. They arise out of the misuse of corporate powers, and as these powers are conferred by law so by law they can be curtailed or amended. By jugglery with corporate credit, men have made themselves the menacing, powerful capitalists whose capacities for oppression are appalling. By it scrip and certificates which stand for no value, are put on the market and made current. It is like making paper legal-tender, or forty-cent dollars to pass for gold ones; only what even the government was forbidden to do last November, corporations freely and disastrously undertake. The effort to make securities stand for a wealth that does not exist and is only prospective—to make fictitious paper stand for what it pretends to be—in any court of morals is wicked. It is this that has bought upon the country great calamities. It has made a new plutocracy, enabled insiders to plunder corporations of their wealth, deranged industry, destroyed credit, made fiercer the strife of labor with capital, impoverished investors, driven us into the shadow of the most hazardous form of socialism, and estranged social classes.

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What then? Shall we refuse to give any more charters of incorporation and suppress at the earliest moment those that are outstanding? That were folly, as well as impracticable. Let it be remembered, too, that joint-stock companies, because they have their capital in shares that may be easily purchased, afford a ready means by which the workman can become his own employer. He can acquire stock in the concern for which he works and thus in time turn the corporation into a co-operative partnership. At least he could if the company were not over-capitalized so as either to be beyond the wage-earner's hope of control, or to render its stock worthless.

In the history of national banks may be found the remedies needed. Such a bank must have its capital paid in; it cannot have a funded debt; it must publish sworn statements of its condition and report to a government official; it is liable to inspection of its accounts at any time. If all corporations were put under like restrictions, very many of our industrial troubles and fears would never have come upon us. A charter of incorporation is a statutory gift, a franchise. It is not granted for private gain, but for the public good. Being a creation of the State it should be amenable to the State, and that amenability certainly should go so far as to compel it to do its business honestly and soundly.

If our troubles lie in the misuse of franchises and if there be an easy remedy to stop those abuses, it seems like "baying the moon" to throw away our true weapons of defense, and vainly denounce the swelling tide of inevitable development.

D. O. KELLOGG.

TWO AMERICAN WOMEN OF HISTORIC FAME*

THE story of the colonization of America and of the War of Independence, says a writer in the current number of the London "Quarterly Review," to whom we owe this paper, is one with which English readers are familiar. Yet hackneyed though it is, the books which we have named at the foot of this page show that it is still capable of fresh treatment. In each of the volumes devoted to 'Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times,' and especially in 'Margaret Winthrop' and 'Eliza Pinckney,' we have pictures of American life, not as it was lived by explorers, statesmen, or soldiers, but as it was lived by women. The background to each portrait is rather social and domestic than political and public. English Puritans of sturdy build and determined character, who left the Old World for the New at the bidding of their consciences, cared little for hardships as compared with freedom and adventure. But for a woman like Margaret Winthrop the change from an agricultural county in England to Massachusetts, — a narrow strip of country hemmed in between the ocean and the forest, — meant far more and cost a greater effort. The biography of Eliza Pinckney again presents a picture of woman's life in a typical slave state in the eighteenth century, and shows how a South Carolinian gentlewoman worked and lived among her negroes in the same benevolent, beneficent spirit in which the best of her English contemporaries played the part of Lady Bountiful to their manorial dependents.

The five volumes cover the period from 1631 to 1849, from the date of Margaret Winthrop's landing in Massachusetts to that of the death of Dolly Madison. But the two biographies to which we shall confine our attention are those which best illustrate the distinctive feature of the series. They are the most feminine, and the least political in plan and detail. They not only span the period from colonization to independence, but they also bring out in the clearest fashion, by contrast or comparison, the

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* 1. "Margaret Winthrop" (wife of Governor John Winthrop of Massachusetts). By Alice Morse Earle.
2. "Eliza Pinckney" (wife of Chief Justice Pinckney). By Harriott Horry-Ravenel.
3. "Mercy Otis Warren" (sister of James Otis). By Alice Brown.
4. "Dorothy Payne Madison" (wife of James Madison). By Maude Wilder Goodwin.
5. "Martha Washington" (wife of George Washington). By Anne Hollingsworth Wharton.

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different characteristics of the two great groups of colonies, and thus exemplify the force of that patriotic ardor which could alone have fused such opposite elements into one national whole.

In 1618, John Winthrop, eldest son of Adam Winthrop, of Groton Manor, near Sudbury, in Suffolk, was thirty years of age, a widower, a justice of the peace for the county, and a prosperous London lawyer, having chambers in Temple Lane, 'near the Cloyster.' He was, in the best sense of the word, a typical Puritan. The materials out of which his character was built were of the massive kind that produces dignity, stability, and simplicity. He had little of the brilliance of intellect, or the quick-witted activity of mind, which distinguished the generation of men that was now passing away. He shows none of the geniality, the expansiveness, the rich sympathy, the effervescence of the Elizabethan temperament. But he was a man of solid worth, cautious of speech, just in all his dealings, temperate and frugal to austerity in his life. His grave and weighty endowments at once commanded respect and ensured sobriety of judgment. Self-restrained and self-reliant, he had that firmness and fortitude of mind which withstood difficulty and peril, like a rock against a tempestuous sea. Men of this stamp were needed to found a New England. The more brilliant Elizabethans were bold explorers of Eldorados, and daring freebooters on the Spanish Main; but they had not the tenacity of purpose which could alone create permanent colonies. Some higher object than greed of lucre, some more sustaining motive than the spirit of adventure, were needed before men could grapple with nature in that death-struggle in which the early colonists were compelled to engage.

Underneath this massive strength of character, there ran, as with most strong men, a deep vein of tenderness. John Winthrop proved himself to be a loving husband and a kind father. Though his love-letters are couched in Scriptural phraseology, he was also an ardent wooer. The following passage carries us back in its language to the days when the Puritan was a 'man of one book, and that book the Bible.' Yet in thought and feeling, beneath the borrowed phrases, there burns the steady flame of real passion, which, alike in love or war, made the language of the Scripture no figures of speech, but words from the heart:—

'And now, my sweet Love, lett me a whyle solace myselfe in the remembrance of our love, of w^ch^ this springe tyme of acquaintance can putt forthe as yet no more but the leaves and blossomes, whilest the fruit lyes wrapped up in the tender budd of hope; a little more patience will disclose this good fruit, & bringe it to some maturitye: let it be our care & labour to preserve these hopefull budds from the beasts of the fielde, and from frosts & other injuryes of the ayre, lest our fruit fall off ere it be ripe, or lose ought in the beautye & pleasantnesse of it.'

The woman, to whom this letter (which we have abridged) was written in 1618, was Margaret Tindal, then twenty-seven years of age, the daughter of Sir John Tindal, one of the Masters in Chancery, who, two years before, had been shot dead with a 'dagge' by a disappointed litigant. In 1618 she married, as his third wife, John Winthrop. The marriage was discouraged by her relations; but she remained firm, and was rewarded in the complete happiness of their wedded life. She proved a true mother to her four stepchildren, as well as to her own sons and daughter.

No portrait of Margaret Winthrop exists. But in her husband's eyes, at any rate, she was a woman of great personal attraction. Years after they were married he speaks of his longing to see again that 'sweet face—that lovely countenance I have so much delighted in and beheld with so great content.' Her character, on the other hand, stands out clearly enough in her letters and her actions. We see her in religious matters seeing eye to eye with her husband, intent upon her household duties, careful of his creature comforts, sending him, to his London chambers, the simple products of her country farm, obedient to his wishes even in matters of dress, and, for his sake, giving up 'the ornaments which for Virgins and Knights, Daughters, &c., may be comely and tollerable, w^ch^ yet in soe great a change as thine is, may well admitt a change also.' Yet though thus submissive to her husband's wishes, Margaret Winthrop was a woman of high mettle and undaunted courage. Her fearlessness in greater matters was all the more admirable, because, in smaller things,

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she was not above a woman's tremors. Her husband's work compelled him to live in London, while she remained in Suffolk, counting the days for his return at the end of the law terms. The separation was irksome to both, and John Winthrop proposed to take a house on the Surrey side of the river.

'I must,' writes his wife, 'aledge one thinge, that I feare in your cominge to and fro, lest if you should be ventrus upon the water, if your passage be by water, w^ch^ I know not, it may be dangerous for you in the winter time, the wether beinge colde and the waters perilous. And so I shoulde be in continuall feare of you lest you should take any hurt. I cannot but with greefe beare y^or^ longe abscence, but I hope that this will be the last time we shall be so long asunder, w^ch^ doeth sumwhat stay and comfort me.'

Yet this woman, thus submissive to her husband's wishes and timorous for his safety in crossing the Thames, did not shrink from encouraging him, at the bidding of his conscience, to face the perils of the voyage to America, or from herself following him to their home in the New World. Well might Winthrop speak of her in his Journal as 'a helpe and encouragement to her husband in his duties, wherein soe many wives are so great a hindrance to their's.'

To a man like Winthrop the times, in spite of his domestic happiness, were evil.

'This Land,' he says, 'growes weary of her Inhabitants. . . . . All Artes & Trades are carried on in that deceiptfull and unrighteous course, as it is almost impossible for a good & righteous man to mainetayne his charge and liue comfortablie in any of them. The ffountaines of Learning & Religion are corrupted.'

His thoughts began to turn with longing towards the New World. In October 1629 the offer came to him from the Massachusetts Bay Company to go out as Governor. He did not hesitate. His mind was made up at once. In March 1630 he had taken leave of his wife, and embarked on board the 'Arabella,' bound for New England. With him sailed his two youngest sons.

In the autumn of the previous year he had written to his wife, preparing her for their separation. Margaret Winthrop's answer shows the mettle of which she was made.

'I knowe not how to expresse my love to thee or my desires of thy wished welfare, but my hart is well knowne to thee, which will make relation of my affections though they be smalle in appearance; my thoughts are more on our great change and alteration of our course heare, which I beseech the Lord to bless us in & my good Husband cheare up thy hart in the expectacion of God's goodnesse to us, and let nothing dismay and discourage thee; my grefe is the feare of staying behind thee, but I must leave all to the good Providence of God.'

A few days were spent together, and then husband and wife were parted, he to face the dangers of the voyage, she to endure the harder trial of waiting in suspense.

On board the 'Arabella,' riding at Cowes, Winthrop, on March 28th, 1630, writes a last letter after the parting was over.

'And now,' he says, 'my sweet soul, I must once again take my last farewell of thee in Old England. It goeth very near to my heart to leave thee. Oh, how it refresheth my heart to think that I shall yet again see thy sweet face in the land of the living!—that lovely countenance that I have so much delighted in, and beheld with so great content. . . . Therefore I will take thee now and my sweet children in mine arms, and kiss and embrace you all, and so leave you with God. Farewell.'

Seventy-six days later Winthrop landed in New England. He found the colony in a deplorable state. The winter had been severe and prolonged. Ill-fed, badly lodged, and scantily clothed, many of the colonists had died. The survivors were 'weak and sick,' and their provisions were well-nigh exhausted. Winthrop's first care was to send back the 'Lyon' for fresh supplies; his next, to house and shelter the new settlers, while yet the summer lasted. Winter was soon upon them. Pierced to the bone by the fierce east winds, and chilled to the marrow by frosts and snow, the colonists died by the score. Hemmed in between the ocean and the gloomy forests, they kept starvation at bay by gathering clams and mussels from the frozen shore, or collecting ground-nuts and acorns. When they were almost at death's door, and the Governor had scraped his last handful of meal from his only remaining barrel, a vessel dropped her anchor in the Bay. It was the 'Lyon,' laden with provisions from home, and bringing news of the birth of Winthrop's daughter Ann.

Throughout this gloomy period Winthrop's resolution never faltered, though 'my much business hath made me too ofte forgett mundayes and frydayes (the days in which husband and wife

were in spirit to commune with each other). Writing to his wife, who was coming out to join him, he says:—

'It is enough that we shall have heaven though we should passe through hell to it. I thanke God, I like so well to be heer, as I do not repent my cominge; and if I were to come againe I would not have altered my course, though I had foreseen all these Afflictions. I never fared better in my life, never slept better, never had more content of minde, w^ch comes meerly of the Lord's good hande, for we have not the like meanes of these comforts heer w^ch we had in England.'

A list of the stores which Margaret Winthrop was to bring with her might be compiled from the different letters written by her husband. From the contents of such a list may be gathered the wants of the infant colony. 'Ill diet at sea' had bred a fatal disease among the new settlers, and against this danger he specially warns his wife. For the voyage itself, fresh provisions were to be laid in. She was to provide herself with cooking utensils, not forgetting

'a case to boyle a pudding in; store of linnen for use at sea; some drinkinge vessells & peuter & other vessells.'

Among other stores are mentioned 'linnen, woollen, beddinge, brasse, peuter, leather bottells, drinkinge hornes, &c. Axes of 'severall sorts of the Braintree Smithe, or some other prime workman, whatever they coste,' 'some Augurs great and smale,' 'candles, sope, and store of beife suett.' To his eldest son, who was expected in the same ship, he sends further instructions as to meal, peas, oatmeal, Suffolk cheese, sugar, fruit, figs, pepper, saltpetre, conserve of red roses, mithridate, pitch, tallow, and wine vinegar.

It is worthy of remark, that, with the exception of some 'sacke to bestowe among the saylors,' no mention is made of spirituous liquors of any kind.

In August 1631 Margaret Winthrop sailed in the ship 'Lyon.' With her went her little daughter Ann, who died at sea. After a voyage which lasted ten weeks, the 'Lyon' reached New England on November 2, and Winthrop describes the honors with which the Governor's wife was received on landing with her husband. A love of pomp and ceremony is one of those human failings in his character which make it more attractive. 'The ship gave them [salutes of] six or seven pieces,' as they left the side. On shore, 'the captains, with their companions in arms, entertained them with guard, and divers vollies of shot and three drakes,' while the people flocked in from the country with stores of provisions—'fat hogs, kid, venison, poultry, geese, partridges, &c., so as the like joy and manifestation of love had never been seen in New England.'

The welcome was warm and kindly. But from the homely beauties of the rich meadows of Suffolk, then the best farmed county in England, the change to the wild forest lands of the New World must have been startling. Margaret Winthrop was not, however, the woman to shrink from hardship, or lament the loss of comforts which she had deliberately abandoned. Her new home at Boston was a wooden structure, containing six rooms, besides offices and garrets, plain without and within, and barely furnished. It stood till the war of American Independence, when it was destroyed by the British soldiers for firewood. Its whole contents, at Winthrop's death, including the wearing apparel, arms, and armor, were valued at only 103*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.* The inventory is not without interest.

On the ground floor were the hall,—the living room of the house,—the parlor and the study. The hall contained a table and cover, a cupboard, six chairs, a round white box, and a pair of snuffers. In the parlor were a standing bed with a down mattress, bolster, pillows, and coverlet, two trundle bedsteads, and two chests. In the study, filled with carpenter's tools, were probably ranged the thirty-nine theological books which Winthrop bequeathed to Harvard College. To a notable housewife, such as Margaret Winthrop had been in her own country, the contents of the kitchen were even more meagre.

The rooms above, the Hall chamber, the Porch chamber, and the Parlor chamber, were even more scantily furnished. The supply of linen was small. More than a fourth of the whole value of the contents of the house consisted of clothes. Among the latter three pairs of gloves are valued at 3*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*

Yet Margaret Winthrop never seems to have regretted the loss of the luxuries of her English home. She had 'passed the seas to inhabit and continue in New England,' and she made herself happy

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there. In the midst of a year of distress, when crops had failed owing to cold and wet summer, she wrote to her son in England :—

'When I thinke of the troublesome times and manyfolde destractions that are in our native Countrye, I thinke we doe not pryse oure happinesse heare as we have cause, that we should be in peace when so many troubles are in most places of the world.'

The duties of a housekeeper, and those which belonged to her husband's office, occupied her mind. The question of domestic service was already one which caused grave anxieties to the mistress of a house. It does not appear that Winthrop had in his family any 'Moors' or negroes; but he received in 1634 a license to 'entertain an Indian as a household servant.' Margaret Winthrop seems to have been more fortunate in her domestic arrangements than some of her neighbors. Living as she did in a town, she had less difficulty in procuring English servants than those householders who inhabited country districts. Mary Dudley, for instance, who lived 'farre from ye baye,' at Cambridge and Ipswich, was led a sad life by her maids.

'I thought it convenient,' she writes to her mother, 'to acquaint you and my father what a great affliction I have met withal by my maide servant, and how I am like through God his mercie to be freed from it: at her first coming she carried herself dutifully as became a servant; but since through mine and my husband's forbearance towards her for small faults she hath got such a head, and is growen soe insolent that her carriage towards vs, especially myselfe is vnsufferable. If I bid her doe a thing shee will bid me doe it myselfe, and she says how she can give content as well as any servant but shee will not, and sayes if I love not quietnes I was never so fitted in my life for shee would make me have enough of it. If I should write to you of all the reviling speeches and filthie language shee hath vsed towards me I should but grieve you.'

Apart from the difficulties and hardships which naturally fell to the lot of early emigrants, the life had many compensations. There was, as yet, little of the joyless gloom which, in the second generation, hung so heavily over New England. Puritans though they were, the people were not morose, witch-haunted fanatics. Society was congenial, for in tastes, interests, and religion, the new settlers were united. Many graduates of Oxford or Cambridge lived in the immediate neighborhood of Margaret Winthrop; many others were old friends and neighbors from the Eastern Counties; the majority were people of substance and well connected in the Old World. Life, moreover, was stirring and picturesque, and it centred round Margaret Winthrop's home. French Catholics, such as the Sieurs d'Aulnay and La Tour, intrigued against each other in Winthrop's Hall chamber. Sojourners, like Sir Harry Vane or Hugh Peter, came and went. Daring adventurers, such as Captain Underhill or Captain Cromwell, relieved the sombreness of Puritanism by a dash of the wild and reckless buccaneer.

Training-days on the Common, and still more the annual installation of magistrates at Boston, were scenes which glowed with some of the sunny richness of Elizabethan times. The processions through the street, and across the market-place, to the meeting-house, on these festive occasions, were not without their pomp and ceremony, while in appearance the crowd of onlookers was far more varied and picturesque than any gathering in the Old World. The train-bands of colonial soldiers, whose burnished armor, pikes, and muskets shimmered in the sun, made a brave show, as they marched to the sound of drum and clarion. Behind them came the group of magistrates, large of build, and square of countenance, wearing that demeanor of natural authority, which in the New World inspired the respect of men who had placed the ocean between them and their kings, princes, and all degrees of artificial nobility. If the dark clothes of English emigrants gave to the crowd a prevailing tint of sombre hue, yet the black cloaks, starched bands, and steeple-crowned hats of the elders, were varied with other and brighter figures. Here, for example, stood apart a group of Indians in all their savage finery, their red and yellow ochre, their feathers, their bows and arrows, their curiously embroidered deerskin robes, surpassing in impassive gravity the most sour-visaged Puritan. There, again, rollicked a party of bearded, sun-blackened seamen, half traders, half buccaneers, puffing clouds of smoke from under their broad brimmed hats of palm-leaf, and drinking from their pocket flasks huge draughts of *aqua vitæ*, though both tobacco and brandy were forbidden to the townsfolk.

Such were some of the aspects which

the New World presented to Margaret Winthrop. More important by far was the religious life of New England. At first the congregations were held in the open air under a tree; then they gathered, it is probable, in Governor Winthrop's house; finally, a mud-walled meeting-house was built. Here were held the week-day lectures; here also, at the Sabbath services, John Wilson as pastor, and John Cotton as teacher, accompanied by much doleful singing, ministered to the spiritual wants of the community. Already those religious differences had sprung up, which afterwards bore such bitter fruit in the colony; Roger Williams was preaching against theocratic government; Anne Hutchinson was busy with her revelations and prophesyings; and Samuel Gorton taught that there were no such places as heaven or hell. Such troubles scarcely disturbed the serene faith of Margaret Winthrop. Yet the close of her life was in other ways full of anxiety. Her husband's estate had suffered by his devotion to the business of the State, and he was reduced to poverty. But he was not destined to leave his wife a widow, and penniless. On June 14th, 1647, when he was entering on his eleventh term as Governor, Margaret Winthrop died. In his 'Journal,' Winthrop thus records his loss:—

'In this sickness the governour's wife, daughter of Sir John Tindal, Knight, left this world for a better, being about fifty-six years of age; a woman of singular virtue, modesty and piety, and specially beloved and honoured of the country.'

Winthrop only survived his wife two years; but, we regret to add, he lived long enough to marry a fourth time.

The next volume in the series, 'Eliza Pinckney,' carries us over a whole century and lands us in South Carolina, the most typical of the Slave states. The change is one not merely of climate, soil, and products; it is social, political, religious, moral and industrial. We leave behind the democratic commercial group of Northern states, self-governing republics in all but the name, with their elective, representative, self-taxing assemblies, their independent congregations, their condensed population, their small plots of land, townships, town meetings, and village politics. We enter the colonial monarchies of the Southern States, with their ecclesiastical hierarchies, their oligarchical society, their huge landed estates, tilled by slaves, their isolated life, and their feudal administration of local government and justice. It is as a representative of this planter aristocracy that the portrait of Mrs. Pinckney is painted. And a charming picture, we may add, is that which her descendant has drawn and set against a background of the occupations, customs, manners, and habits of thought of women of South Carolina in the eighteenth century.

In 1738 Eliza Lucas, then a girl of fifteen, the daughter of Colonel George Lucas, an officer of the English army, who afterwards became Governor of Antigua, settled with her mother and younger sister in South Carolina. English by birth, and educated in England, she threw herself with surprising energy into the life by which she was surrounded in her new home. Her father had barely had time to purchase land and settle plantations, before he was recalled to the West Indies. Mrs. Lucas was an invalid, and to the elder daughter fell the charge of all domestic affairs. At an age when most girls are still at school, she had on her shoulders the care of three plantations.

The management of a plantation was in itself no light task. Miss Lucas began her day at five o'clock in the morning. Her first visitor was the plantation nurse to ask for advice and medicine; then came the housekeeper and the division of daily work to two hundred men and maids. Letters had to be written to the overseers, crowded with minute details of planting operations, sheep-shearing, bacon-curing, soap-boiling, wood-cutting, salting of beef, or loading of vessels. Under the eye of the mistress the maids were set to their wool-carding, spinning, weaving, cutting and making of clothes. When once the machine was set in order for the day, it probably ran with smoothness. But Miss Lucas was not content to work by routine. She was full of schemes. Now she tries an experiment of sending eggs packed in salt to the West Indies. At another time she cultivates plots of ginger, cotton, lucerne, or cassada, to see whether such crops were suited for the highlands of South Carolina. Her experiments in indigo proved a source

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of wealth to the colony. After many disappointments, she succeeded, for the first time, in establishing her crop, and mastering the secret of its preparation. Just before the Revolution, the annual value of the export of indigo was 1,107, 660*l.* — no slight boon for a girl to have bestowed upon the province. 'When,' asks her biographer, with pardonable pride, 'will any "New Woman" do more for her country?'

In the midst of this busy life, Miss Lucas made time to gratify other tastes. Devoted to music, she regularly set aside certain hours in the day to its study, and writes to ask her father's permission to send to England for 'Cantatas, Welden's anthems, Knolly's rules for tuning.' She loved reading, and did not disdain novels. Her friend, Colonel Pinckney, kept her supplied with books, though one of her neighbors thought she would 'spoil her marriage and make herself look old long before she was so,' by her love of literature.

'I send herewith,' she writes, 'Col. Pinckney's books, and shall be much obliged to him for Virgil's works, notwithstanding this same old Gentlewoman (who I think too has a great friendship for me) has a great spite at my books, and had like to have thrown a vol^m of my Plutarch's Lives into the fire the other day; she is sadly afraid, she says, I shall read myself mad.'

Besides her interest in farming, her passion for music, her taste for literature, she had a genuine love of nature. She devotes a page of foolscap to a description of a nest of mocking-birds. She spent hours in her garden, where she tried to acclimatize new varieties of plants. She delighted in trees, and speaks of them in stilted style indeed, yet with genuine enthusiasm.

Nor was Miss Lucas in the least unfeminine. She is unaffected in her delight when a box comes out from England, containing materials for new clothes, books, and apples. The arrival of such boxes was looked forward to with something more than curiosity when almost all the luxuries, and many of the necessaries, of life came from the mother country. Carriages, bedsteads, furniture, and baskets were made in England. Even the materials for the fashionable fad of japanning tea-caddies were imported. 'Meddicines' also came from home, and Miss Lucas, who suffered from headaches, had to wait six months before Dr. Mead's prescription could be made up. At her own home she was an admirable specimen of the squire's wife. It was part of her daily life to visit the sick on her plantations. Fond of children, she not only taught her little sister, but held a school for a 'parcel of little negroes.' Eager to be useful to those around her, she studied a law-book in order to make wills for her poor and uneducated neighbors, 'who have a little land, a few slaves and cattle to give their children, that never think of making "a will" till they come upon a sick bed, and find it too expensive to send to town for a lawyer.'

Society in South Carolina had much of the charm and many of the faults that characterise the society of a territorial aristocracy. It brought plenty of gaiety into the active life of Miss Lucas. Balls at Charles Town, when the fleet came in were great events. Miss Lucas tells her father that she had danced a minuet with his

'old acquaintance, Capt. Brodrick. A Mr. Small (a very talkative man) desires his best respects, and says many obliging things of you for wch I think myself obliged to him, and therefore punished myself to hear a great deal of flashy nonsense from him for an hour together.'

Then there was 'vizeting' among her country neighbors. For the most part visits were paid by water. Rowed in long canoes by six or eight negroes, who sang in perfect tune as they swung their paddles, she landed at one of the private wharves which were indispensable to a country house. If she drove, she went with her mother in a coach drawn by six horses, the gentlemen perhaps riding by the side on their spirited Chickasaws. The homes of the planter aristocracy were built on the English model, baronial mansions, with large rooms wainscoted in long narrow panels, with high carved mantels and deep window-seats. Hospitality was generous. Lavish dinners, where wine and food were alike plentiful, served with fine silver, damask, and Indian china, were followed by the scraping of fiddles, and a dance in which, either indoors or out, in the ballroom, the servants' hall, or on the lawn, the whole household, white and black, took part. Grave minuets, or cheerful country-dances, were danced with gentlemen in powdered hair, square-

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cut coats, long waistcoats, breeches, and buckled shoes, by Miss Lucas and her girl friends, dressed in their best attire of brocade or lute-string, with huge hoops, and towering 'heads,' and high-heeled shoes.

One other feature in the character of this South Carolinian gentlewoman remains to be noticed. She was unaffectedly religious. In the pleasant fashion of an elder sister she warns her brother against the sneers of Voltaire or the jibes of the Encyclopedists. Her simple piety stands out in her 'private devotions,' or in her 'Resolutions.'

Miss Lucas was now twenty-three years of age. Her father had already proposed to her two eligible suitors. As to the first she knew him too slightly. As to the other he was too old; 'the riches of Chili and Peru, if he had them, could not purchase a sufficient esteem for him to make him my husband.' She therefore begged to make her own choice. It was not long in coming. In 1744 she married Colonel Charles Pinckney, a childless widower, twenty years her senior, whose first wife had been her dearest friend. He was a man holding a very distinguished position in the colony, an eminent lawyer, Speaker of the House of Assembly, and a wealthy planter. Their marriage proved a very happy one.

As a married woman Mrs. Pinckney continued to live the same active life as before, though her anxieties were increased by the birth of three children, two sons and a daughter. In 1752 her husband accepted the position of Commissioner of the Colony in London. A voyage of twenty-five days from Charles Town brought them to England. It is curious to read that their first step was to hire a house at Richmond for innoculation against the small-pox. This important precaution taken, she desired, as a loyal subject, to see what there was of Royalty. A long and interesting account is given of her visit with her husband and children to the widowed Princess of Wales at Kew. Carrying a present with them for their little girl to give, they sent in a card thus inscribed:—

'Miss Harriott Pinckney, daughter of Charles Pinckney, Esq^{r}. one of His Majesty's Council of South Carolina, pays her duty to Her Highness and humbly begs leave to present her with an Indigo bird, a Nonpareil, and a Yellow bird, w^{ch} she has brought from Carolina for her Highness.

The little girl and her present, the father and mother and their two boys, were received by the Princess with the greatest cordiality, saw the whole family, and apparently had an interview which lasted considerably more than two hours. The Princess and her daughters asked a number of questions, some of which were of a domestic character, such as whether Mrs. Pinckney suckled her own children. Others related to the Colony, its constitution, its foundation, its manufactures; others to the Indians, their color and manners; others to the homes of South Carolinans, their food, their wine, their mode of eating and dressing turtle. Among other observations which Mrs. Pinckney makes are these two. She notes the heartlessness of Londoners, and comments on the very disagreeable habit of perpetual card-playing.

The Pinckneys remained in England till March, 1758, when troubles on the frontier, arising out of the Seven Years' War, made her husband's return necessary. They left behind them their two boys to be educated in England. Hardly had they landed in South Carolina than Mr. Pinckney was struck down by fever and died. After the first agony of grief was over, his widow devoted herself to the education of her daughter and the care of her estates. She had also to choose a school for her sons.

In 1768 Mrs. Pinckney's daughter married, and she was now a lonely woman. Already the shadows of the coming Revolution were beginning to gather. But South Carolina was firmly bound to the Mother Country, not only by commerce, but by the tie of personal loyalty. Few of the natives of the province even dreamed of cutting themselves adrift from England, however strongly they might sympathize with their brethren at Boston. Up to 1775, few signs of the approaching storm appear in Mrs. Pinckney's letters. With her sons it was otherwise.

In 1769 the eldest, Charles Pinckney, returned to South Carolina, after taking his degree at Oxford and being called to the Bar. Years of absence in England had not weakened the attachment which he and his brother Thomas felt for their native country. A picture had been painted of him, before he left the Old World, which represents him in the attitude of declaim-

ing against the Stamp Act, while his brother was nicknamed by his English companions 'The Little Rebel.' How deeply the latter felt the threatening aspect of affairs, is proved by the fact that he had studied the art of war at the Military Academy of Caen, and, as the following extract from a letter to Mr. Ladson shows, had prepared himself in other ways for the outbreak of hostilities.

'At this period,' writes Thomas Pinckney, 'American politics occupied much of the public mind in London, and the young Americans attended a meeting of their countrymen convened by Dr. Franklin, Mr. Arthur Lee, Mr. Ralph Izard, &c., for the purpose of framing petitions to the Legislature and the King, deprecating the Acts of Parliament, then passing, to coerce our Country. But the petitions not having the desired effect, and foreseeing that an appeal must probably be made to arms, we endeavored to qualify ourselves for the event and hired a sergeant of the Royal Guards to drill us at your Father's lodgings. From him we obtained the knowledge in military service we could derive from a person of his rank.'

It is not our purpose to follow the course of the struggle which ended in American independence. In the Northern States matters advanced far more rapidly than in the South, as was only to be expected from the social, religious, industrial, and political differences between the two great groups of colonies. In the one case, separation was probably inevitable; in the other, it might have been at least postponed. The life of Mercy Otis, who in 1754 had married James Warren, illustrates the rapid growth of the desire for independence in Massachusetts, which was the hotbed of revolutionary feeling. Mrs. Warren was from the first in the thick of the fray. As the wife of James Warren, the sister of James Otis, the intimate friend of John and Samuel Adams, the personal enemy of Governor Hutchinson, and a bitter political satirist, she herself played no inconsiderable part in the movement. She was, however, a woman without a spark of humor, whose mind was always on stilts, never stooping to chronicle small beer, rarely addressing even her husband except in academic style and with measured decorum. She begins one of her letters with the statement that she will for once ignore politics, having so much to tell her husband of domestic interests.

From such a woman it would be vain to expect those homely touches, which not only heighten tragedy by the force of contrast, but help us to realize how ordinary women pursued the even tenor of their ways under the gathering blackness of the Revolutionary storm. For these we must return to the letters of Mrs. Pinckney, the main interest of whose life was still centred in the careers of her sons, the health of her daughter, the growth of her grandchild, the engrossing cares of household duties, or the simple pleasures of society. Here we find in abundance those petty details which, by their juxtaposition with graver subjects, bring out into fuller relief the tragic forces at work in America. Interwoven with tender messages, domestic anxieties, or local gossip, runs a crimson web of allusions to political events, which, though at first slender, gradually widens till the whole texture is red with the horrors of war. Between Mercy Warren and Eliza Pinckney there was little in common. Character, tastes, early associations, interest, circumstances, were all unlike. Yet, under the pressure of the national struggle, the two women see eye to eye, and feel heart with heart, the same patriotic devotion to the cause of American Independence.

Mrs. Pinckney, at the beginning of the momentous year, 1775, was living at Charles Town. It is not altogether uncharacteristic of the woman that one of the first hints of the gravity of the situation comes through her difficulty in performing a shopping commission for her daughter in the country. In February, 1775, the decree of the Continental Congress had come into operation, and no British goods were imported.

'Jones sent me word,' writes Mrs. Pinckney, 'that the stores had been searched and he could not get a bit of fine washing Pavillion gauze [mosquito net] anywhere. I afterwards sent old Mary, with directions not to miss a store, and to let them know it was Cash. After two or three days' search she got me some coarse stuff for w^ch^ I payed ready money.'

At the close of the same letter is an allusion which brings before us the first *visible* sign of resistance. 'I send,' she says, '16 Cake knots for my dear Boy, to whom remember me tenderly. Mrs. Prideau, 'tis thought, will dye of a pleurisy.' Mrs. Prideau did die, and, as mourning goods were all imported, she

was followed to the grave by her relatives and friends clad in many-colored garments.

Her next letter describes a picnic, at which Thomas Pinckney contrived some ingenious glasses out of white paper. Then follows another letter, full of a mother's pride in the exceedingly becoming appearance of her son's wig and gown, accompanied by a passing allusion to the solemn day appointed by the Congress of the Province for fasting and prayer for guidance.

Men in South Carolina had perhaps made up their minds that war was inevitable. General Moultrie, for instance, in his 'Memoirs' describes this service as an 'affecting scene.' 'Every one,' he says, 'knew the occasion, and all joined in fervent prayer to the Lord to support and defend us in our great struggle in the cause of Liberty and our Country.' But Mrs. Pinckney was still hopeful. A few days later in the year 1775, she writes to her daughter to tell her of the death of an old friend in England and of the latest political news :—

'A packet came in on Sunday night, it rained all day yesterday, and I did not know it to inform you by Sam. Poor Lady Charles Montagu is dead. She died at Exeter. I can't tell you much publick news, but what I have heard is as follows, That ye American affairs wear at home a more hopeful aspect. The King has promised to receive the petition. Jamaica has petitioned, the rest of the Islands are about to do it, as well as the London Merchants. The Tradespeople clamour extremely; Mr. Fox is not so violent as he used to be against us. Capt. Turner is also arrived and says there is a prospect of the acts being repeal[d].

'Pray God grant it may prove true!'

In April, 1775, the battle of Lexington began the war, and, two months later, Mrs. Pinckney's two sons had gone into camp with the First Regiment of South Carolina troops. Nowhere perhaps in America was the rending asunder of friendships or the division of families more widely felt than in South Carolina. The Loyalists were strong in numbers, and, when the struggle came, it assumed the form of civil war, with Colonel Tarleton and General Marion as the leaders of the two parties. For the first three years after the outbreak of hostilities, life in the Province was little affected by the contest. But, in 1779, the storm burst upon them in all its fury. Mrs. Pinckney lost nearly everything that she had, and was reduced to poverty. She never in the least complained.

In 1780 Charles Town capitulated to the British on condition that the citizens, under a general parole, were to be left unmolested in their homes and property. The terms were not kept in the spirit, even if, by a technical interpretation of the language, they were adhered to in the letter. Domiciliary visits were made in search of 'rebels' still in arms; the roads were patrolled by troops who intercepted all who were not furnished with official permits; houses were plundered or burnt; slaves were carried off, not to be freed, but to be sold in the West Indies; no property was safe against the exigencies of public service. So the war dragged on. But in 1782 the people knew that its end was near, and in December of that year the British troops took to their ships, leaving Charles Town to be occupied by the 'Ragged Continentals.'

Mrs. Pinckney survived by ten years the restoration of peace. Happy in her children, her only sorrow, as she writes in 1785, was the loss of friends.

'Outliving those we love is what gives the principal gloom to long protracted life. There was never anything very tremendous to me in the prospect of old age, the loss of friends excepted, but this loss I have keenly felt. This is all the terror that the Spectre with the Scythe and Hourglass ever exhibited to my view. Nor since the arrival of this formidable period have I had anything else to deplore from it. I regret no pleasures that I can't enjoy, and I enjoy some that I could not have had at an early season. I now see my children grown up, and, blessed be God! see them such as I hoped. What is there in youthful enjoyment preferable to this?'

Mrs. Pinckney died in May, 1793, happy in the knowledge that her two sons had done good service to the United States. Her letters reveal a charming character, and we are grateful to her biographer for giving us the pleasure of making her acquaintance. It is when we read her biography, which is chiefly based on her own letters, that we most regret, for the sake of our descendants, the decay of letter-writing. Novels in abundance the present generation will leave behind them; but we are inclined to think that, a hundred years hence, English men and women would sacrifice them all for a bundle of the simple letters, never intended for the public eye, which our ancestresses used to write in the leisured eighteenth century.

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THE CELT'S CONTRIBUTION TO LITERATURE*

THE Celt as an irresistible invader, mighty conqueror, and master of Europe has long ceased to exist; but in spite of the hostility of the Anglo-Saxon, and the discouraging predictions of certain oracles, the Celt as a genius and dominant factor in literature will never die. His place in the future as in the past, however, can never be ascertained by viewing him through English eyes. He must be studied in the light of his own characteristics and institutions. He must be permitted to speak for himself and be accorded a fair hearing before the world's tribunal.

The Celt has had his faults, and to some extent has them still, but Philistinism is not among them. He had his literature when the Saxon was a roving savage, and his literary productions, judged in the light of the writings still extant, reflect no little credit upon his genius. Leaving the question of the antiquity of the various manuscripts to be settled by men eminently qualified for the work it is not too presumptuous on our part to say that some of them evidently date back to a period close upon the withdrawal of the Roman forces from Britain, and that every subsequent period, with very few exceptions, are represented by the others. Nor are these literary remains as inconsiderable as many suppose. Irish writings, including ancient laws and historical and imaginative tales, constitute a vast amount of literature, the printed edition of the "Annals of the Four Masters" alone embracing seven large quarto volumes, making an aggregate of 4,215 closely printed pages. To this must be added the vellum and paper manuscripts belonging to Trinity College, Dublin, and to the Royal Irish Academy, which contain reading matter enough to fill nearly 50,000 pages of the size just mentioned. In these writings almost every detail in Gaelic life and manners is touched upon, while glimpses are had of ancient traditions and of the origin of the Irish monuments.

None of the Irish manuscripts now extant dates further back than the eleventh century, though many of them contain material that is much older. Nor did the productive period of Irish literature last more than a few centuries, for the language began to recede, and the literary men to disappear, in the fifteenth century. As Ireland, however, was closely connected with Scotland, both in blood and language, several of its men of letters migrated to the North and there gave an impetus to literature which resulted in the composition of Scottish poems and tales embodying in a modified form the same original material as had found expression in Ireland. This period of literary activity was short-lived, however, as the Reformation gave it a check from which it never recovered. Of the productions handed down to us few except those known as Ossian's Poems exist. Nor are these as extensive as Mr. Macpherson's so-called translations would have us believe they are, as has been conclusively shown by those who have looked into the matter.

Cornish literature is more limited than that of the Scottish Highlands, while that of Brittany is still less extensive. A few writings in both, chiefly of a religious character, are all that remain. This fact is not so surprising with regard to Cornwall, since the Cornish dialect died in the last century; but a language like that of Brittany, which is still spoken, and, I believe, written, ought to have been more productive of literary results.

Any consideration of Celtic literature would be incomplete without giving prominent, and in some respects preëminent, place to Welsh literature. As important as it is extensive, as varied as it is interesting, it deserves more than a brief notice. It embraces a wide range of literary production, such as glossaries and grammars, historical and genealogical writings, poems, tales, laws, medical treatises, and, if we include modern compositions, a large collection of theological and miscellaneous works. Until the last decade or two, but little of this mass of literature had made the acquaintance of printer's ink, and even now much of it remains unpublished. It is no wonder, therefore, that a general misconception of the extent and intrinsic worth of Welsh literature should exist. Many of the original manuscripts have found

* See the article on Celtic Literature in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. V. page 297–328.

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their way into the British Museum, and the libraries of Jesus College, Oxford, and the University of Cambridge; while the remainder are preserved in private collections in various parts of the Principality. Some idea of the immense bulk of this literature may be inferred from the fact that the Hengwrt collection alone consists of about four hundred volumes. The Myvyrian collection is not quite so extensive, but it comprises forty-seven volumes of poetry and fifty-three volumes of prose, making in all an aggregate of over 31,000 pages. While none of the manuscripts now extant are considered older than the ninth century, they contain material of much greater antiquity, some of the traditions even ante-dating the Christian era.

Though written in Latin rather than in Welsh, the works of Gildas, Geoffrey of Monmouth, Giraldus Cambrensis, and a few others, belong to Welsh literature, and though they are not always reliable as historical authorities they contain much valuable information, and reflect the manners, customs, and traditions of the earlier Britons.

From the data now in our possession we cannot determine for certain whether the Welsh had any literature to speak of previous to the sixth century. That they had their oral traditions and poetical effusions we have positive evidence of in the works of Roman writers, who characterize the Celts as being "wiser than their neighbors." But the fact that the Druids committed nothing to writing forbids the supposition that any literature existed in Britain so long at least as Druidic influences were dominant. The new burst of national life which followed close upon the Roman withdrawal, however, and the new rallying of the British forces against the Saxon invader ushered in a literary era that gave the nation such poetical geniuses as Aneurin, Taliessin, and Llywarch Hên. In the twelfth century, when the Welsh were stirred up anew to make another tremendous effort to regain their liberties, another and a more lasting period of literary activity commenced, which gave us a veritable army of poets and writers. And this mental activity in Wales was unique, the twelfth century Welsh, according to Thierry, being the most civilized and intellectual people of that age.

In the presumed absence of the reader's acquaintance with Welsh literature through the medium of the language in which it was written, a few extracts from sources differing widely in age and character may not only be permissible but imperative, though Welsh prose in some respects is untranslatable and Welsh poetry much more so. As the Triads are acknowledged to be the oldest form of the former we cite the following, translated by Charles Wilkins, Ph.D., from the "Archæology of Wales," as an instance both of the wisdom of the ancient Britons and of their terse manner of expressing themselves:

"There are three branches of wisdom: wisdom towards God, wisdom with respect to every fellow-man, and wisdom with respect to one's self."

"The three recognitions that produce wisdom: the knowledge of God, the knowledge of the heart of man, and the knowledge of one's own heart."

"The three indispensables of wisdom: science, genius and discrimination."

"The three stabilities of wisdom: what is right, beautiful and possible."

"Three things will be obtained by wisdom: the good (things) of the world, mental comfort, and the love of God, etc., etc."

As among other nations proverbs have had a prominent place among the Welsh. Here are a few of them translated from a long list:

"Truth against the world."

"Without God, without anything."

"The baby grows, but not its clothes."

"Who sows thorns let him not go barefooted."

"Who feeds not a cat must feed mice."

"The cat loves fish, but not to wet her feet."

"A son's promise is froth."

"Selling honey to buy sweets."

"If not strong, be shrewd."

"The mill that grinds needs water."

Where in the literature of any people can anything more beautiful be found than the following from the story of Kilhwch and Olwen:

"The maiden was clothed in a robe of flame-colored silk, and about her neck was a collar of ruddy gold, on which were precious emeralds and rubies. More yellow was her head than the flower of the broom, and her skin was whiter than the foam of the wave, and fairer were her hands and fingers than the blossoms of the anemone amidst the spray of the meadow fountain. The eye of the trained hawk, the glance of the three mewed falcon, was not brighter than hers. Her bosom was more snowy than the breast of

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the white swan; her cheek was redder than the reddest rose. Whoso beheld her was filled with her love. Four white trefoils sprang up where she trod."

I have intimated that Welsh poetry is untranslatable. This is due, as one Englishman expresses it, to the fact that the Welsh language is absolutely inapproachable by any Continental tongue so far as the relation of sound to ideas is concerned. The secret of this inapproachableness is a rich vocabulary developed during centuries of poetical training guided by the most intricate rules. Any attempt at translation, therefore, must be attended with grave difficulties. Here, however, we shall partly avoid these difficulties by taking our examples only from the free metres. The first quoted by Dr. Wilkins from a poem called "Gododin" is by Aneurin, a bard of the sixth century.

"Gilded by no illustrious fame,
A sea, a saddening sea of blood,
That poured adown in one grim flood!
This gave to Cattræth its name—
A name at which humanity will mourn,
And friends of Wallia's warriors weep,
For those that in their fated sleep,
No more to their dear land return."

Two brief extracts from the works of Davydd ab Gwilym, the Cambrian Petrarch will serve to illustrate the poetry of the Middle Ages. The first is from a poem on the Stars; the second from a poem on "Thunder."

"Hailstones of the sunbeams made,
Those golden treasures of the sky,
Grand coinage of the Diety."

"Clanging armor of the heaven,
Fire and wave in conflict driven;
Flame of wrath, and waves that tame,
By their mighty gush, the flame;
Giant Echoes of dismay,
Trumpet of the whelming spray,
Like a thousand voices blending,
From the stars of heaven descending;
Like the crash of forests hurled,
From the welkin to our world."
—*From "Wales, Past and Present."*

One selection taken from Watcyn Wyn's beautiful poem on "Silence" will suffice as an instance of modern Welsh poetry.

"Thy stillness deep beyond my comprehending,
The bounds of thy enjoyment so unending;
The soul in thy communion lost forever,
While to thy bosom pressing closer, closer.
O underived and everlasting greatness,
Some independent nothing in thy essence;
Upon unruffled swells thy silent fulness
Bears to thy sea of charms the soul in patience."

Turning from the consideration of Celtic literature to that of Celtic influences upon English literature, we find a richer field than many suppose. Many who have written their works in English belonged to the Celtic race. Oliver Goldsmith, Thomas Moore, Charles James Lever, and Samuel Lover were Irish; Charlotte Brontë was Irish and Cornish; James Macpherson and Robert Burns were Celtic Scotch; and Henry Vaughan, George Herbert, and John Dyer were Welsh. Even Shakespeare, Milton, Ben Jonson, Scott, Byron, and Macaulay had Celtic blood in their veins. Of the vast army of living writers and poets many are wholly or in part Celtic. There is some reason then for the recent assertion of a learned professor that considerably more than one half of all that is great in English literature owes its existence to Celtic blood and genius. The antiquarians are thus playing havoc with some of the pet notions of the Anglo-Saxon. The physiologists and philologists have also done their share to dissipate the delusion that but little if any Celtic blood had mingled with that of the Saxon. Physical types and names of places cannot belie their origin. If the Britons were exterminated or driven out so thoroughly as some would have us believe, these characteristics of form and speech would not have survived in every county but one in England.

In addition to what has been said it is an incontestable fact that much of the material incorporated into English literature has been taken from Celtic sources. Without the Arthurian Legends what would much of English literature have been? As the enemy of the Saxon King Arthur (if he was ever anything but a myth), reigned less than half a century; as the chief hero in English literature he has wielded his sceptre from Geoffrey of Monmouth to Tennyson. He made the "Idylls of the King" possible. Other Celtic material is also found in abundance in the works of English authors. Chaucer drank from the fountains of Celtic literature, and so did Spenser and Shelley, as is evidenced by the "Faerie Queen" and "Queen Mab." At least two of Shakespeare's plays—"King Lear" and "Cymbeline" and several of his heroes are Celtic. Gray's "Bard" was a Welshman.

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Speaking of Celtic influence upon English poetry in general we must not fail to indicate that rhyme was first derived from the Celts. Anglo-Saxon poetry was as devoid of rhymes as was classical Latin, and rhyme found its way into Teutonic and Scandinavian tongues only through the Romance languages. Rhyme, however, abounds in the works of the oldest Welsh poets, and hence must have existed even prior to the sixth century among the Celts. Every reader of Welsh poetry to-day must be impressed with the ease with which delightful assonance and rhyme are wedded to thought, while the stiffness and lack of adaptability of the English language is never so keenly felt as when one is hunting for an appropriate rhyme.

To the Celtic contributions already mentioned must be added the love of nature, a contribution which has greatly enriched English poetry. The Celt has always lived close to nature's heart. He has felt her magic touch more deeply, and entered into her varying moods more heartily, than any of his brethren. Sensitive and imaginative to a superlative degree he has communed with the spirit of the storm and compelled even the hard-hearted rocks to yield up their charm. Under the sway of his genius the brook babbles more merrily and the sea lashes itself more terribly, the sun shines more brightly and the sky lowers more darkly, the flowers smile more sweetly and the rocks frown more menacingly, the cataract leaps more wildly and the thunder peals more loudly. Indeed, there is a dash, an abandon, an irresistibleness about the Celtic genius that at one moment seems to tickle nature into a hearty laugh and the next to provoke her into a towering passion.

The Saxon also has his admirable characteristics, but naturally the love of nature is not one of them. Germanic in its origin the Saxon genius is more dull than sensitive, more persistent than imaginative, more steady than dashing, more industrious than brilliant, and more rationalistic than *spirituel*. As we know it to-day, however, the Saxon genius has been modified not a little by the infusion of Celtic and Latin blood. But even in this modified, and, we think, greatly improved, form, it showed but little of the love of nature previous to the eighteenth century. Addison, master of literary style though he was, was bored by the grand and romantic scenery of Switzerland. Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton had a more appreciative sense of nature's beauty. They had enough of the Celt in them to give us beautiful word-pictures of natural objects, yet none of them loved nature for her own sake. In respect to Shakespeare Prof. Dowden, of Trinity College, Dublin, has this to say: "Nature in Shakespeare, itself joyous and free, ministers to what is beautiful, simple or heroic in man, while nature alone is never anywhere conceived as sufficient to satisfy the heart or the imagination of a human being."

It was in Wordsworth that the awakening which has permeated the English literature of the nineteenth century began. Why the Celtic element in the English genius did not lead to this awakening earlier is difficult to understand. Perhaps the absence of strikingly romantic scenery in England had something to do with it. But it is significant that Wordsworth himself was taught to appreciate the beauties of nature by the poetical works of Henry Vaughan and John Dyer, two Welsh poets, for whom, especially the latter, the English poet expressed great admiration.

What we have thus designated the love of nature Matthew Arnold in his work "On the Study of Celtic Literature" calls the magic of nature, and he cites several examples of its absence as well as its presence in English and other literature not essentially Celtic. What he found so rare in the works of the earlier poets, however, we find in abundance in those of the later poets in America as well as in England. Longfellow had caught the true Celtic note when he sang of Autumn thus:

"Morn on the mountain, like a summer bird,
Lifts up her purple wing; and in the vales
The gentle wind, a sweet and passionate wooer,
Kisses the blushing leaf, and stirs up life
Within the solemn woods of ash deep-crimsoned,
And silver beach, and maple yellow-leafed."

Nor did Whittier, Bryant, and Lowell strike an unfamiliar key when they sang of Nature. And poets yet unborn as well as those who now flourish will not cease to feel the Celt's magic spell.

MORGAN P. JONES.

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WOMAN IN ARCHITECTURE

THE influence of woman upon the art of building has been greater, and has extended farther back in history, than perhaps most of us are aware. In fact, the sentiment which enters into art in all its ramifications is an irrefutable argument for that suggestion of grace and harmony which arises from admiring love and the feeling of protection which man entertains for woman. Even in very ancient times the habitations of almost barbarous peoples partook somewhat of that sentiment of beauty with which man would ever surround the woman of his choice, and doubtless the growth of grace and harmony of proportion, the delicacy of curves and lines, found in the most splendid structures of the world resolve themselves to the unconscious rendering of his thought into material, as he remembers the beauty of his beloved. The curve of the hip to the knee, is, in a perfect form, nothing less than that chaste line of beauty which enters into all good art,—the firm and rounded breast may well have suggested the dome. The column of the throat, the well-poised head, as its capital, and the graceful slope of the shoulders, all suggest lines of grace which we constantly see duplicated in architecture, sculpture and ceramics.

For actual designers and builders of ancient times, we may turn to Zenobia, Queen of the East, who built up the great city of Palmyra, and died B. C. 280. No less famous was Semiramis, Queen of Assyria, who built cities with the same virile grace with which she subdued armies. She flourished 1215 B. C. There was also Aspasia, the intimate friend of Pericles, and said to be more learned than most of the philosophers of Athens. During the whole time that Pericles was building and decorating the city she aided him by her counsels and exquisite taste. He himself paid a most glowing tribute to her influence.

Again, monumental architecture has been the outcome of grief and passion for the love of woman, she being still the inspiration, even when death has concealed her from the wistful eyes of her lover. The Appian way, leading from Rome, is bordered on both sides with the most exquisite monumental architecture, raised over the forms of those noble, beautiful and worthy Roman matrons and maidens who have passed into an almost immortal memory in these records of grief in stone.

Many, also, are the queens and women of rank, whose piety and religious fervor have caused to be erected churches, chapels, monuments and homes for the indigent, hospitals and libraries, besides palaces, mansions and castles, in which work, although they may not have been recorded as the architect, there is no doubt that their brains planned, and their tongues suggested, even if their hands did not actually hold the trowel or brush. Witness the schools of the Empress Eugenie, the Albert Memorial of Victoria, and, in America, the superb residence of Mrs. Mark Hopkins.

The name of Queen Anne has latterly been associated with a revolution in style in architecture, effected largely under the influence of the literary sentiment of her time, while the architect who completed for the Duchess Margarite the Church of Brou, and the sculptor who carved the tomb therein, may be said to have been but the workmen who held the tools, under the direction of the famous lady. As much may be said of the wonderful "Little Trianon" of the ill-fated Marie Antoinette, who in an almost childish fever of delight ordered first one thing and then another built, and watched them grow like magic beneath her critical eyes.

Of our present and immediate American women architects, we find Mrs. Louise Bethune, who has the honor of being the first recognized woman architect in this country and is now the only woman member of the American Institute of Architects. Eminently successful as a teacher of her art, she refused to compete for the construction of the Woman's Building at the Columbia Exposition, as the competition was not conducted on the principle of "equal pay for equal service," the remuneration offered being less than half that given for similar service to the men who designed the other buildings. Had this article been written a decade ago the statement could safely have been made that there were not a half dozen women architects in the country,—but at this date their number

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has so notably increased that the profession for women is no longer looked upon as novel, or in any way surprising, since those who have adopted it have quietly made such success as to stand well in the front ranks among their brothers in the art.

The planning of the household architecture of this country is one of those silent influences that have been designated "the power behind the throne." It is rarely that a man who thinks enough of the comfort and well-being of his wife and family to invest his money in a new dwelling house will not listen to the suggestions and desires of the woman who is to spend the most of her time within its walls. If the first plan seems quite satisfactory to him, her quick eye will soon discern where it could be improved, and by frequent consultation, the original design is often so distinctly modified as to become practically a new idea. The various schemes for convenience and beauty which are originated by women, the filling of a nook or corner with a closet or the ornamentation of a hall or archway, the suggestion as to color and harmony, so often emanate from the mind of the wife, that one may compare the home-building to the feathering of the nest of a bird, with tiny soft plumes from her own warm breast.

Perhaps in all the occupations chosen by women for self-support, none is more elegant or refined than architecture. The magnificence of the models which are brought before the eye in beautiful drawings or other reproductions,—the delicacy and yet strength of hand required in the copying and designing of lines and curves,—the uplifting of the spirit into an atmosphere of calm and steadfast beauty, the poetry which accompanies the very rudiments of this superb art, are alike elevating and harmonizing, while the actual labor is of the most attractive kind. It is not to be wondered at that the successful women who have accumulated small fortunes in this profession should speak of it with enthusiasm, and it is a great encouragement to those who have a soul for art and natural talent for design.

To return to the historical story of the influence of women upon architecture, it may be said that never in the world has been builded so supreme and admirable a work of human hands, as one which was inspired by reverent love and grief for a woman,—and it stands to-day the despair of all other artists, the acme of beauty, the gem of the world. I refer to that magnificent structure at Agra, the Taj Mahal, which was raised by the great Mogul of India, Shah Jehan, to his royal spouse and adored mate, Moomtaza. Built for a queen, it seems to immortalize in marble the exalted love of man for woman, and in a beauty which is universal in its ideality, it appeals to the spirit of the present century quite as keenly as to that in which its graceful columns rose to adorn the earth. One of our eloquent Americans thus expressed himself after gazing in awe upon its sculptured beauty. "There are four or five Taj Mahals! It has one appearance at sunrise, another at noon, another at sunset and another by moonlight. Indeed the silver trowel of the moon and the golden trowel of the sunlight and the leaden trowel of the storm build and rebuild the glory, so that it never seems twice alike. It has all moods, all complexions, all grandeurs. From the top of the Taj, which is 250 feet high, springs a spire thirty feet higher and that is of enamelled gold! What an anthem in eternal rhythm! Lyrics and elegies in marble! Sculptured hosannas! Masonry of supernatural hands! Mighty doxology in stone! I shall see nothing to equal it till I see the great white throne."

The greatest woman architect that the world has ever known and whose glory will ever stand first in the annals of great works produced by women, whether now or in ages to come, was Queen Artemisia of Caria. When Mausolus, the king, died, his widow seemed henceforth almost wholly absorbed in the memory of him. She built in his honor, at Halicarnassus, that magnificent monument or mausoleum, which was known as one of the "seven wonders of the world," and which became the generic name for all superb sepulchres. She employed the most renowned orators of the age to immortalize the glory of her husband by writing and reciting his praises. At the consecration of the wondrous fabric which she had reared in his honor, she offered a prize for the most eloquent eulogy on Mausolus. All the orators of Greece were invited to the contest, but

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Theopompus bore off the prize. She daily mixed some of her husband's ashes with her drink, so that, e'er their spirits met in Hades, her body was the tomb of his.

Thus in all ages, as in the present, woman has proved herself capable of large, noble and lofty ideas, and, when given the means, has been able to put her magnificent conceptions into solid and lasting form,— a form which has often won the undying admiration and wonder of the world. She is, and has ever proved herself, capable of carrying original designs to a triumphant issue, and in architecture, as in all the other useful or ornamental arts, she is certain to attain distinction and achieve fame.

CORA LINN DANIELS.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,

BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

ON the 15th of June, 1897, the Johns Hopkins University attained its majority and celebrated its twenty-first annual commencement. The special feature of the occasion was the graduation of the first group of fifteen students who have completed their four years' course in the Medical School, which was opened four years since. Forty advanced students received degrees of Doctors of Philosophy, thirty-six completed their college work and received their A. B. degrees, and four were awarded certificates of proficiency as electrical engineers. It is a significant fact, that while six of the fifteen graduates in medicine were from Baltimore, only three of the forty Doctors of Philosophy were from the home of the University. The requirements of the Medical School are as high as in any similar institution in the world, being the usual A. B. degree, a working knowledge of French and German, and a good foundation in Biology and Chemistry. One hundred and twenty-three young men and women have been students of the Medical School of the University during 1896–97, and among those who received diplomas in medicine was one woman.

Johns Hopkins, the wealthiest citizen of Baltimore, toward the close of his long life, conceived the idea of endowing an university and hospital, and on the 24th of August, 1867, the Johns Hopkins University was incorporated. Three years later, on June 13th, 1870, the Board of Trustees was organized. Nothing more was done from that time until the death of Mr. Hopkins, when, by the provisions of his will, the University came into possession of $3,000,000, in stocks and lands.

When the Johns Hopkins University opened, on the 3d of October, 1876, it was fully equipped for the place it was to take among American institutions of learning. It is a genuine product of our rich and varied soil. Unlike the old universities of Europe and America, it has not been the product of centuries of growth. A clever American poet once said of the wonderful growth of the United States:

"Not like old Rome, slow waxing into state,
The century that freed beholds us great."

In less than a quarter of a century, the Johns Hopkins University has become recognized as one of the world's great institutions of learning.

The University was fortunate in securing for its first and only President, Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, who was elected December 30th, 1874. Since receiving his A. B. degree at Yale in 1852, his life has been crowned with academic honors. His alma mater conferred on him the degree of master of arts in 1855; Harvard made him a LL. D. in 1876, Columbia College in 1887, Yale in 1889, and the University of North Carolina, the same year. From 1856 to 1872, Dr. Gilman was Librarian, Secretary of the Sheffield Scientific School, and Professor of Physical and Political Geography in Yale; from 1872–75, President of the University of California.

The inauguration of President Gilman took place in the Academy of Music, Baltimore, on the 22d of February, 1876, in the midst of a distinguished assemblage, including the Governor of Maryland, the Mayor of Baltimore, the

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Trustees of the University, the President of the Baltimore City College, the President of Harvard University, and many well-known residents of Baltimore. Dr. Charles W. Eliot, in his congratulatory address, said: "The oldest university of America cordially congratulates the youngest, and welcomes it as a worthy ally;" he commended the new university on being "unsectarian;" adding that it was most appropriately so in a city named after the founder of a colony to which all Christian sects were welcomed, and in the State in which religious toleration was expressly declared in the name of the Government for the first time in the history of the world. In the course of his remarks, Dr. Eliot reminded President Gilman that "to build an university needs not years only, but generations," and that "it was a service which would tax every power of the mind."

Dr. Gilman, in his inaugural, said that the buildings should be, temporarily, in the heart of the city and, at length, on the site at Clifton (the home of Johns Hopkins, near Baltimore), adding that measures had been taken for the improvement of Clifton as an university site. The President further hinted that that site, beautiful in itself, and already well-planted, would become an academic grove, with temples of learning so appropriate, so true and so well built, that no other ornaments will be essential for beauty, and yet in that entire neighborhood no work of art will be out of place." In his first Report, President Gilman observed that: "The Trustees have not forgotten the importance of developing Clifton with reference to the purposes to which it will be devoted. In addition to the constant care of the grounds, much consideration has been given to the various requirements of the University, for public buildings, residences, botanical gardens, play-grounds, etc." It was manifestly the intention of Johns Hopkins that the University should be at Clifton, and such was the original purpose of the Trustees, as mentioned by President Gilman.

The traveller who has been abroad and visited Oxford, the nursing mother of so many illustrious Englishmen, must have been impressed, as he walked down High Street, with the noble display of college buildings (twenty-seven in all), many of them taken in at a glance. It must ever be a matter of regret that the Johns Hopkins University, splendid as its work has been and will be, is deprived of one of the chief attractions of college life which belongs to an university town, such as for centuries have made Oxford and Cambridge in England, and Cambridge in America the homes of great universities. Such would have been the charm of the Johns Hopkins University had the intention of its founder been carried out, and the University been established at Clifton, instead of in the heart of a great city, with no campus, no grounds, no distinct college life, no peculiar social attractions, no brilliant gatherings, such as Max Müller has formed at Oxford, and which has made the seat of Harvard University the most cultured town in the United States. But it is useless to regret what cannot be changed; and wise to accept the inevitable.

When the Johns Hopkins University opened, on the 3d of October, 1876, eighty-nine students were enrolled. The number has been steadily increasing, year after year, during the twenty-one years of the existence of the University, until it reached 596 in the year 1896. Of this number, 123 were from Maryland; the remainder came from every part of the United States, and a sprinkling from Europe and the Orient. Up to 1896, 3,142 students have been instructed at the University. Of these, 800 have been engaged as instructors, either at the parent university, or in other universities and colleges. This single fact shows the high character of the education acquired at Johns Hopkins.

From the beginning, Dr. Gilman and the Trustees of the University have endeavored to engage the foremost professors for the various departments. The result has been that the several chairs have been acceptably filled by some of the leading educationists of the time. In addition to the regular academic staff of 106 professors and associates, distinguished lecturers, at home and abroad, have been invited from time to time to deliver special courses during each scholastic year. Among these eminent men were James Russell Lowell, Dr. John S. Billings (recently appointed Chief Librarian of New York), James Bryce, Edward A. Freeman, Matthew Arnold, Dean Stanley, Canon Farrar, Sidney Lanier, James A. Harrison, Woodrow Wilson,

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James Schouler, Sir Archibald Geikie (the celebrated Geologist), Andrew D. White (formerly President of Cornell University), Alexander Graham Bell (of telephone fame), Frederic Brunetière, and many others.

The college courses are divided into seven groups: Classical, Mathematical-physical, Chemical-biological, Physical-chemical, Latin-mathematical, Historical-political, and Modern languages; and these are sub-divided into appropriate seminaries, the whole forming a complete university curriculum. In addition to the seven courses just enumerated, special mention should be made of the Medical School, which was opened in 1893, and promises to become an important department of the University. It already numbers 125 students, with a staff of 38 professors and associates. The students enjoy the privilege of attending the clinics at the Johns Hopkins Hospital.

One of the most interesting and valuable departments of the University is that of History and Politics, under the direction of Dr. Herbert B. Adams, Professor of American and International History. This department occupies seven rooms on the third floor of McCoy Hall. Its most precious possession is a library of 18,000 books, and 50,000 pamphlets, including the Bluntschli Library, belonging to the late Professor Bluntschli, of Heidelberg. This valuable collection was purchased by German citizens of Baltimore, and presented to the University in 1881. In this department the student devotes his time to historical investigation, and is encouraged in his studies by the portrait busts of eminent historians and statesmen which line the walls of the library. Next to this department is one devoted to the study of European history. This is also well supplied with appropriate books, and embellished with portraits of great men. The department of Southern History is an interesting room on the same floor, in which are collected books and material relating to the history and literature of the Southern States, including Colonial and Revolutionary manuscripts, pamphlets and books about the Civil War, documents, autographs, etc. From the walls look down such distinguished Southern statesmen, scholars and soldiers as the Calverts, John C. Calhoun, William Wirt, John P. Kennedy, Chief Justice Taney, Jefferson Davis, and Robert E. Lee.

A few words may be said here of the general Library of the University, which occupies the upper floor of McCoy Hall. The number of bound volumes in the main library, and in the various seminaries and laboratories, is 80,000, which have been carefully collected by the advice of the leading instructors of the University. The books are admirably supplemented by 1,200 periodicals, comprising all the leading literary and scientific publications of the world, in all languages. Important new books are added as soon as published, and thus the collection is always kept up to date. It should be mentioned that, in the main library, as well as in the special libraries and laboratories of the University, are found students representing all classes and conditions of life. It should also be remembered that, in the republic of letters, as in the American Republic, all men are equal. In both, men of the humblest birth have reached the highest stations. Homer, the blind beggar, has filled the throne of poetry for nearly 3,000 years; Æsop, the slave, enchanted courts by his wit; Socrates, the son of a stonecutter, drew the noblest youths of Athens to his feet by his wisdom; Petrarch, by his divine gift of poetry, became the companion of princes and cardinals. When Lorenzo the Magnificent escaped from the fatigues of business to his favorite retreat on the Arno, the sharers of his studious retirement were not the young patricians of Florence, but the accomplished poet, Politiano, the mirthful Pulci, the learned Scala, the thrice-gifted Michael Angelo, whose early genius Lorenzo had discovered and encouraged. Some of these raised themselves, by their supreme talents, far above the accidental distinctions of birth and fortune.

Indifference to literature, and neglect of literary men, form the "unfinished window" of our otherwise almost perfect republic. Let us never forget that great as Athens was in her Miltiades, Aristides, and Themistocles, she was more glorious in her Socrates, Plato and Sophocles. Let us never forget that Rome, when at the height of her power and splendor, most generously encouraged and richly rewarded her literary men. As our Government is modelled upon Rome, so let us imitate her appreciation of genius.

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We, who have taught the world so much of practical science, so much of commercial enterprise, so much of political independence, should contribute an equal share to the intellectual progress of mankind. The experience of the last ten years should have convinced all thinking Americans that too much politics, and not enough statesmanship — too many politicians, too few statesmen, — is the greatest danger that has yet menaced republican institutions. This present peril can be averted if college men would devote more time to public questions and less to abstract science. In theory our Government is the best in the world; in practice it is fast sinking to a level with the worst. We want better men in high and low places. If our colleges cannot provide such men, then they fail to that extent. Politics should be a noble pursuit, and such it was when politicians were patriots, and senators were statesmen. In the earlier and better days of the Republic, patriotism was its own reward, and did not seek the spoils of office — did not look to the Senate as a sure road to wealth.

Although pure patriotism ought to call forth the highest endeavor of college-bred men, there is a grand and noble pursuit that should command the attention of men of culture. Carlyle has said that literature is the noblest field for the truly ambitious man. He was right: the greatest political fame, however brilliant, is but brief. A prime minister sways a nation's destiny: he is the idol of the hour—his speeches are in every journal, his name in every mouth. He dies or falls and soon his very name is forgotten. Who was prime minister of England when Samuel Johnson walked the streets of London all night because he had no place in which to sleep? Who was prime minister of England when Oliver Goldsmith lived in a garret in Green Arbor Court? The statesmens' names are forgotten, but the names of Johnson and Goldsmith will go down to the latest posterity.

From the opening of the University, Mathematics has been a leading branch of study. Professor Sylvester, the distinguished English mathematician, was induced, partly by an ample salary, to accept the head of this department in the new University. He brought with him the reputation of a successful teacher and a profound thinker, and during the years he remained in Baltimore he gave a great impetus to his special branch of learning. Among other things, he established the "American Journal of Mathematics," which has become an authority upon that branch of science. When Prof. Sylvester returned to England, he was succeeded by Prof. Craig in the chair of Mathematics, as well as in the editorship of the "Journal of Mathematics."

The Physical Laboratory and Seminary is under the general direction of Prof. Henry A. Rowland, assisted by Professors J. S. Ames, Louis Duncan, and others. This department includes Applied Electricity, Steam and Hydraulic Engineering, Practice in Mechanical Drawing, etc. It is well supplied with all the necessary appliances, including a physical laboratory, power house, dynamos, motors, valuable instruments for elementary work and research, with a carefully selected library, in which are all the leading physical journals published in the United States, England, France, Germany and Italy. In this, as well as in the other departments, a working knowledge of French and German is required.

The department of Chemistry is presided over by Prof. Ira Remsen, assisted by half-a-dozen associates. The course of instruction includes analytical chemistry, physical chemistry, inorganic chemistry, and laboratory work. Much of the work in the advanced courses is done in the laboratory, under the personal direction of Professors Remsen and Morse.

Within the last quarter of a century, Biology has become an important part of an university education. Johns Hopkins provides for courses in this study. 1, For students who wish to make Zoölogy or Animal Physiology or Botany a subject of advanced study and research, or the principal or a subordinate subject for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy; 2, for graduates in medicine who desire a laboratory course in Physiology; 3, for undergraduates who desire some knowledge of the biological sciences as a part of a liberal education; and 4, for undergraduates who desire to prepare themselves for the study of medicine. Prof. Wm. K. Brooks is at the head of this department, assisted by five other professors. The building devoted to biolog-

ical studies at Johns Hopkins was the first of its kind constructed in this country. The work carried on here is threefold: Physiology, Zoölogy, (including Morphology and Embryology), and Botany. An excellent collection of works on biological subjects, a museum, and a herbarium have been added to the laboratory, and every facility is offered for the prosecution of original investigation.

Instruction in Geology and Mineralogy is under the direction of Dr. William B. Clarke, and consists of lectures, laboratory and field work and conferences upon topics of current literature. The library in this department is well supplied with leading journals and works of reference upon geological subjects, including the fine library of the late Prof. George H. Williams, whose memorial lectureship was inaugurated during the past session by Sir Archibald Geikie, Director General of the Geological Survey of Great Britain. The department of Astronomy was organized under the direction of the eminent scientist, Simon Newcomb, and it is now in charge of Associate-Professor Charles Lane Poor. The classes include beginners and those who are prepared to carry on advanced work. Suitable instruments have been provided, and a small observatory enables the students to make and record observations.

The Latin and Greek Seminaries of the University are under the direction, respectively, of Prof. Warren and Prof. Gildersleeve, and consists, each, of undergraduate, advanced, and elective courses. Lectures are given by the professors, and the students read the standard classical authors. The Oriental Seminary is in charge of Prof. Paul Haupt, who instructs the students in Hebrew, Assyrian and Arabic. Less than a dozen students availed themselves of this course, while Prof. Bloomfield had only half a dozen in Sanskrit. The well-equipped library of the Oriental Seminary has been recently enriched by the valuable collection of the late Prof. August Dillmann, of Berlin. The English Seminary, under Professor James W. Bright and Dr. Wm. Hand Browne, provides instruction in advanced and college courses, including Anglo-Saxon and the study of the early masters of English poetry, Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton. Associate-Professor Herbert E. Greene gives an elective course in the English literature of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries — from Dryden to Wordsworth. A class in Rhetoric and Composition, under Professor Greene, meets three times a week; lectures are given by the Professor, papers are written by the students, which are read and criticized in the presence of the class, each member of which is obliged to make a careful study of one prose author, and submit the result of his study in the form of a series of short papers.

Prof. A. Marshall Elliott is at the head of the Seminary of the Romance Languages. Advanced instruction in this department covers a period of three years. The subjects of instruction comprise three sections: a purely linguistic, a purely literary, and a composite group intended to unite the first two. The studies include Latin, Italian, Spanish and French literature.

A few years since there appeared in a contemporary an article on "The Development of the American University," in which the writer said, that, up to that time (1888) "there has existed no form of an educational institution which we can call an "American University," if, by this term we intend to designate something other and higher than an American college." Yet, at the time when that article was published, the Johns Hopkins University was in the full vigor of its youth, and splendidly equipped with all the requirements of an university. Harvard required two and a half centuries to grow from a college to an university; but Johns Hopkins was a born university, if, by an university is meant an institution in which "a higher education" is obtained.

President Gilman published in 1896 what he called "A Glance at the Past," in which he said that Johns Hopkins University "was a place, where youth, properly trained by a long course of discipline, . . . might be aided by teachers, instruments and books to pursue an advanced course of study and thus to be fitted for the traditional professional life, for professorships of science, literature, and other callings which are based on a high intellectual attainment." Among the "permanent subjects of instruction" at Johns Hopkins, said Dr. Gilman, "have been the ancient classics, the Semitic tongues

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etc." He especially declared that the University was intended for those who had undergone a period of college training, whose intellectual habits were formed, who had acquired exact knowledge, who had learned how to study;" thus assuming that the University is intended as a training-school for professors, and, as such, as already mentioned, it has unsurpassed facilities. That the Johns Hopkins is an "up-to-date" university is shown by the freedom allowed students to choose their course of studies. Having selected his course, the student must adhere to it. The training he receives is thorough and systematic; and when he receives his degree, he has earned it, and is well fitted to take his place as a teacher of the special study to which he has devoted himself. When Socrates taught his enthusiastic disciples the wisdom of which he was master; when Plato walked the academic grove with his followers and announced those high truths which still charm the human mind, the ancient world had no higher university than the school where these illustrious philosophers lectured. So, the Johns Hopkins University aims to furnish the highest education to American youth.

A great advantage possessed by this university from the beginning, has been its elective system. It was only ten years ago that Harvard adopted this system, after much opposition on the part of the conservative members of its faculty. During the discussion, much talk and a great deal of nonsense was published in the public prints; at the same time the open discussion of the matter brought out a modicum of practical, commonsense. From the various opinions, I have selected the following: "The Dial," of Chicago, said:

"Slowly the world has come to the belief that children are to be educated, not merely that they may play the part of machines, or, rather, of parts of machines, in the great social factory, but that each one has a possible development, in and for himself, without reference to others; and that it is the duty of each generation to supply for its successor the requisite conditions for this development. This mature thought of the world has had its influence, of course, upon all educational systems wherever it has prevailed. It has modified the popular notion as to what knowledge is of most worth. The modern ideas in regard to elective courses have come out of a growing reverence for the individual. The schoolmaster, with his too conservative instincts, is no longer at liberty to ignore differing tastes, abilities, and impulses. College and even high school curricula have lost much of their Mede and Persian unchangeableness, and it is admitted that the learner may even early in life make a reasonably wise choice as to how he shall develop his mind. In the good old days, the subjects taught in the best equipped universities were few in number and narrow in scope. Now they cover the whole field of useful knowledge; and that field is enlarging constantly as the years go by."

Another journal said:

"The transformation of the plan of study pursued at Harvard College has culminated in the regulations published for the next academical year. The abandonment of the time-honored principles of university instruction is now complete, and, so far as this institution is concerned, we must learn to attach an entirely new meaning to the phrase, a liberal education; for henceforth it will be possible to obtain the degree of Bachelor of Arts without having read a line of Greek or Latin during the four years covered by the college course."

Mr. Charles Francis Adams, Jr., delivered an address at Harvard, in which he took strong ground against Latin and Greek forming a necessary portion of the college course. He pronounced the retention of these in our college curricula to-day, a "fetich — an absurd anomaly, a senseless tradition."

In the midst of the discussion Archdeacon Farrar visited the United States, and, in an address before the students of Johns Hopkins, he used the following striking language:

"Fifty years ago no educational establishment, as comprehensive in its range as this university existed among the English-speaking nations of the world. The old systems then in vogue were, however, happily more honored in the breach than in the observance. While some boys profited by the scheme, others of equal talent and merit, like Sir Walter Scott, were sent forth dunces. In history they were deficient, and I may say, that they were not taught to write Latin and Greek. The Greek they wrote would make an Athenian schoolboy laugh. Happily, that day is past, and I am happy to say that I have contributed my share toward giving the deathblow to that system of training. The fantastic folly of making every boy write verses in languages he does not understand has had its day. All that has been changed, and honor now is given to every branch of human knowledge. My object was not to disparage the classical studies, but only to destroy the autocracy of those ancient languages. I only pleaded that they should not be exclusive, but I do not mean to say that I wish to have them excluded."

More than two hundred and fifty years ago, the eminently practical phi-

losopher, Bacon, spoke of the evil of an exclusively classical education, and grieved "because there was no collegiate education which was free, where such as were disposed might give themselves to histories, modern languages, books of policy and civil discourse, and other like enablements unto causes of state." Now, if this was an evil in the sixteenth century, it must be a much greater evil in the nineteenth century.

In the sixteenth century, a person who did not read Greek and Latin had little or nothing to read. But all that has long been changed, and the books that have been written in the English language during the last three centuries are of far greater value than all the books which were in existence previous to that time. Shakespeare possesses more sweetness and eloquence, more true philosophy, more genius, in short, than all the classic writers put together. We can do without Œdipus and Media while we have Lear and Hamlet; Falstaff and Dogberry more than supply the place of Thraso and Pyrgopolinices. To affirm that text-books which were old in the days of the Cæsars must be the text-books of American students in the last quarter of the nineteenth century is certainly an absurd proposition; yet that is just what is maintained by the advocates of an exclusively classical education. They ignore the magnificent progress which literature has made during the two thousand years that have passed since Plato taught philosophy in the academic grove, and Cicero's eloquent voice was heard in the Roman Forum. But this only *en passant*, for, as has been said, Johns Hopkins University has wisely adopted the elective system. Starting out as Johns Hopkins University did with a splendid endowment, it adopted at the outset all the newer methods that have been devised in modern times for the promotion of a higher education. While the ancient classics, the Semitic tongues, comparative philology, and history, have been prominent in the curriculum, the newer sciences have been cordially welcomed and encouraged. Modern languages, especially English, French and German, have held a prominent place in the studies, and every candidate for the baccalaureate must have acquired some proficiency in Latin, French and German, history and philosophy, and also have devoted at least one year to some branch of science, including attendance in the scientific laboratory.

The cold enthusiasm which theoretical science inspires is not wanting at Johns Hopkins. The pursuit of science dominates all other studies, and this is to be regretted if it is true, as Ernest Renan declares: "Between Christianity and science, there is an ineffable conflict, and one of the two adversaries must succumb." The natural result of an exclusive devotion to abstract science is a deadly and fatal pessimism, ending in a loss of faith, hope, love, everything that makes life pleasant, earth tolerable, death a curse, and causes the unhappy man of science to exclaim, with the sated King of the Jews, *Vanitas vanitatis*.

Johns Hopkins University endeavors to give a liberal education to every student who "is in training for the degree of bachelor of arts." The University can justly claim, as one of its most important achievements, that 800 of its students have become members of the academic staff of some of the leading universities, colleges and other educational institutions throughout the United States. Socrates wrote nothing, but he taught Plato and Xenophon; he left no philosophical writings, but through the minds of his famous disciples his work went forth to the world, and still lives to instruct mankind. But Johns Hopkins has done more than merely provide instructors for other institutions of learning; its professors have given to the world Studies in Historical and Political Science, Studies from the Biological Laboratory, and Memoirs from the same; it furnishes Contributions to Assyriology and Comparative Semitic Philology; it sends forth monthly Modern Language Notes; it issues a Journal of Experimental Medicine, an American Journal of Philology, besides the other journals already mentioned. So Johns Hopkins cannot be called "a silent sister" among the universities of America.

The University will begin its twenty-second academic year on the first of October, 1897, with, it is believed, over 600 students and 110 professors and associate professors. This is an excellent showing for an university that has only just attained its majority.

EUGENE L. DIDIER.

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SELF CULTURE AND THE SCIENTIST*

SELF CULTURE is the only real and noble aim of life. The magnificence, beauty, and utility of a glacier, as a perpetual reservoir of solid moisture, is not gauged by the size, arrangement, or the constitutional features of its moraines; neither is the greatness and usefulness of the philosopher measured by the amount of his knowledge of the physical fact and theory science of the times.

Of all kinds of intellectual greatness, the greatest is achieved by the philosopher who stands before the thinking world as a model of scientific virtue: deaf to flattery; insensible to paltry hostile criticism; patient of opposition; dead to the temptations of self-interest; calmly superior to the misjudgments of the short-sighted; whom nothing diverts from the endeavor to live nobly, and to whom noble means are as indispensable as noble ends; in whom the most brilliant successes foster neither vanity nor arrogance; to whom fame is unimportant, and poverty a trivial circumstance; whose joys, like fragrant breezes from an encircling landscape, come from the surrounding friendships of the general world, to whose best interests the noble heart is forever loyal. . . .

Another subject for serious reflection is the over-accumulation of scientific information. Certainly the feeling prevails that the world cannot have too much science. But the science of learning and the science of knowledge are not quite identical. Learning has too often, in the case of individuals, overwhelmed and smothered to death knowledge. The average human mind, when overstocked with information, acts like a general put in command of an army too large for him to handle. Many a vaulting scientific ambition has been thus disgraced. Nor is this the only danger that we run; for the accumulation of facts in the treasury of the human brain has a natural tendency to breed an intellectual avarice, a passion for the piling-up of masses of facts old and new, regardless of their uses. In the great game of our spiritual existence, facts are mere counters with which to play the game. A million of them are worth nothing, unless the player knows how to play well the game; and when the game is over the worthless counters are swept back into the drawer. The danger moreover pursues us into higher and higher planes of science. Not only the avarice of facts, but of their explanations also, may end in a wealthy poverty of intellect for which there is no cure. Even the sacred fires of research may be allowed to burn too long, until, in fact, they turn the investigator into a mere miser of ideas.

A certain temperance in science is obligatory from another point of view. As mere wealth of possessions cannot guarantee happiness, neither can a superfluity of learning insure wisdom. When the body from overfeeding grows plethoric, its vital energies subside and its life is endangered. The intellect may be mischievously crammed with science. How much we know is not the best question, but how we got what we know; and what we can do with it, and above all what it has made of us. The tendency of training now is to subordinate the soul to that which should be only its endowment and adornment; to turn the thinker into a mere walking encyclopedia, textbook, or circle of the mechanic arts, not to produce the highest type of man. What ridiculous and pitiable creations are these!—an authority in physics who cannot speak the truth? a leader in natural history who is given over to the torments of envy? a god in chemical research sick of some false quotation? a youthful prodigy of mathematical science tottering with unelastic steps and outstretched arms to grasp his future fame. Yet no one will deny that the intemperate pursuit of any branch of science has a tendency to produce such characters, by elevating to undue importance the individual accumulation of scientific facts and scientific theories, to the neglect and depreciation of that spirit of truth which alone can inspire and justify an earnest study of the material universe.

We should reflect that it is as true of science as of religion that the mere letter of its code threatens its devotee with intellectual death; and that only by breathing its purest spirit can the man of

*Excerpt from a Presidential Address delivered before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, by Prof. J. P. Lesley, State Geologist of Pennsylvania.

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science keep his better character alive,—that indefinable spirit which, in its intimate and essential nature, has little to do with the number of facts discovered, or theories accepted; a spirit which merely exercises itself in research, and accepts discoveries as delightful accidents; a spirit which walks the paths of science, not as if they were turnpikes converging upon some smoky and squalid focus of toil-wearied population, but as if they had been gravelled and flower-bordered for it through some princely park; a spirit of natural and cultivated nobleness, sweetened by boundless friendship for the world and all that lives therein; just and true to all men worthy or unworthy, proud without vanity, industrious without haste, stating its own griefs as lightly as an angel might, and generously bringing help to the discouraged and forlorn. In every one of us there is this genius, if we did but know it; and, as Emerson well says: "The moral is the measure of its health."

J. P. Lesley.

NOTE-BOOK AND PENCIL—A SUGGESTION

THE suggestion I am about to make has no novelty, but to an intelligent man or woman, whether young or middle-aged, if faithfully followed, it will make him or her a person of intellectual resources, an intelligent listener, and, if one is not naturally tongue-tied, a bright, pleasant talker. Though here let me say that good listeners are more generally appreciated than good talkers.

Perhaps your early education has been neglected, and you feel that your ignorance of many things you hear talked about in the best society is a great drawback. Or, it may be, that you have been so engrossed in household or business cares, that you have forgotten much that you learned in your youth, and only now begin to realize that you have completely dropped out of the procession of students and thinkers; and that you are really incapable of taking any part in conversation, outside of your own particular, every-day affairs.

Now, at the opening of the winter reading season, is an excellent time to seek to remedy all that. And I would say to you, begin with the determination to continue the course I shall now lay out for you, at least during the ensuing winter. If you do, you will in another season lay out a still better and more extended plan for yourself, and perhaps thank me for having given you a start in the right direction.

First, provide yourself with a good-sized blank book, and a small pocket note-book and pencil. Carry the latter two articles with you wherever you go; and whenever you see a piece of statuary, (representing you know not what, or whom) or look upon what is considered a good picture; or read an extract containing an allusion that you do not understand; or hear a name, apparently well known to others, but conveying no meaning to you,—look it up! Perhaps that bit of marble may open up to you a most delightful chapter in ancient mythology, or a portion of history belonging to your own country or times, that you really ought to know all about.

Find out who painted the picture; whether it is by an old or modern artist,—and learn all you can about it, and him. The extract you have come across, when looked into and sifted, may reveal a nugget of pure gold, or put you on the track of something you would not have missed for anything. The name you heard mentioned may be that of a man or woman, of whom it is perfectly inexcusable in you to be ignorant.

When you have a half hour or more to spare, spend it in transferring the information you have obtained from your small to your large note book. The latter you may divide into sections for different subjects, and arrange as nicely as you choose. The re-writing will be a great aid in fixing the items in your memory.

In addition to this choose an author—one worth choosing—and make a study of his life and works, during the long winter evenings. If you have a friend or two to join you, so much the better; or perhaps you can get together a choice circle—not too large—of those who are really desirous of self-improvement.

As the reading season closes, if you have pursued your purpose faithfully,

you will find yourself possessed of a degree of knowledge and culture that will be a surprise, even to yourself.

I had thought to stop here, with the setting forth of my modest suggestion; but a few words directed especially to the young may not prove amiss. In continuing I would like to say some practical words to those whose literary tastes are, more or less, unformed.

Good literature may be safely set down as a large source of pure, unfailing enjoyment. My readers are doubtless familiar, to some extent, it may be, with our standard authors — Scott, Emerson, Carlyle, Hawthorne, Irving, Thackeray, Dickens, our beloved "Autocrat," Victor Hugo; and among the poets, I hope they have read enough of Milton to, at least, speak intelligently of "Paradise Lost;" and of Shakespeare, so as honestly to enjoy his plays. Of good Sir Walter, I should be glad to have you know much of him by heart — his "Lady of the Lake," especially, for, if you do, you are sure to read more of his poems. I would say the same of our revered Longfellow, our Whittier and Bryant and Holmes. But how can I place an adjective before one of those honored names and not before all? And, as I write, still others, of the great and good in the world of letters rise and claim a place in one's loving remembrance. I think of many more, of whom I hope you are saying, "Why was not *his* name mentioned? Or *her* name, — for you may be thinking of great women — perhaps of Mrs. Stowe, Mary Wilkins, or George Eliot.

I would have all our young people know intimately, at least the poets of our own country; for to know them is to love them; and, knowing and loving them, the desire must instinctively reach out to the poets and tuneful singers of other lands. It is a positive injustice to a child to allow him to grow up without a love for one or more of those great and inspiring writers, for surely, no child, judiciously treated to one selection after another from those authors, can avoid falling in love with everything that is noble and good; and that love will be fruitful in inculcating good taste and judgment in literature. Where the love of a young heart is once gained by a truly great and good author, I doubt much if the false or impure can ever obtain the same hold over it, as would have been possible without that foundation.

Many distractions — among them of late is the bicycle craze — are, I am aware, causing a diminution of the reading habit. I am not sure that I altogether regret it, for, really, so much trash has of late been sifted through the minds of our young people — yes, and of older people, too — that, in too many cases, the poor sieves themselves will never be of much good again. But nature herself has a cure for this. The education that comes in through the sight of flowing brooks, placid lakes, hill and dale, wood and open field, as they greet the tired eyes, and freshen the jaded sensibilities of the omnivorous reader as he glides past or through, on his noiseless steed, may give tone to his thoughts; and enable him, by and by, to see the beauty of the strong and true, and understand and appreciate the really artistic in literature.

Of course, new books will be devoured, but I cannot help saying that it is a pity that present-day authors are read almost exclusively. Whether your author is a humorist who endangers your buttons with the hearty laughter he provokes; or the pathetic writer, who draws tears from your eyes, and awakens the deepest sympathy of your heart; or the historian, who turns your history into a delightful story; you may soon appraise his moral standard, and I would advise you to determine largely by that whether to accept or reject him from your list of favorite authors, whose books you rush to secure as soon as issued.

Observe what stand your author takes on the great moral questions of the day. Is his heroine so lovely and so fascinating that she commands your whole sympathy and admiration; and yet, at the same time, is she false in word, and false in life and conduct; and directly the opposite of all you have hitherto considered good and womanly? If so, shun that author. He will do you harm. If again you find your author habitually making his mean men Sabbath school teachers or superintendents, and his most contemptible characters church members; while his manly, noble fellows drink and swear and gamble, throw his books aside, even though they delight you. The more charming they are, the worse they

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are. And this, no matter who or how popular the author may be. God is in the heavens, beholding the works of men. Right is right; and wrong is wrong, no matter how covered, or clothed upon with the color or drapery of beautiful, graceful language.

When, on the other hand, your author shows you that he is on the side of freedom, purity, temperance and religion you may be sure that he will do you good, and not evil, all the days of his life;—and he lives forever. All honor, I say, then, to those thinkers and writers of the past who gave to us, not only pure language,—full of grace and beauty; but whose living soul within these vestments shines forth always pure and true. All honor, too, to the men and women of the present, who use their genius, talent, skill, whether it be with pen or brush, to uplift humanity; to show to men and women that vice is always and everywhere ugly, contemptible and morally ruinous, and that, as the old adage expresses it, "virtue is its own reward."

E. A. SELKIRK.

AMERICAN PRESIDENTS ON THE UNITED STATES NAVY

THE Navy Department at Washington has called to its aid, in the forming of opinion anent the increase of the United States navy, the utterances of over a dozen Presidents from the era of Washington to that of Benjamin Harrison. These utterances are culled from Presidential messages, and appear, with an introduction by Theodore Roosevelt, the present Assistant-Secretary of the Navy, in a brochure just issued from the Government Printing Office, entitled, "The Naval Policy of America as Outlined in Messages of the Presidents." In this bellicose age, and especially in view of the vast national interests of the United States at home and abroad, it should require little argument to convince the nation of the necessity for a sufficient and efficient navy. Nevertheless, the little government publication is timely and effective, while it is interesting as an expression of high official opinion on the policy of the Administration in regard to seaboard defense and on the effectual means of preserving peace. The situation to-day is of course very different from what it was in the early years of the Republic, and with the progress of the nation the need has grown immensely not only for an efficient defense for our three thousand mile coastline, but for a navy strong enough to command respect for our flag abroad and the full protection of the country's rights. The creation and the maintenance of an adequate navy must necessarily involve a large expenditure of money, but the dignity and honor of the nation, no less than its security, demand the sacrifice. As President Cleveland once said, "the nation that cannot resist aggression is constantly exposed to it."

Since the Civil War we perhaps owe to President Arthur the most urgent appeal for an efficient navy, and with his administration the foundation of our present naval defense was laid. In his message to Congress, issued in December, 1881, President Arthur said:

"I cannot too strongly urge upon you my conviction that every consideration of national safety, economy, and honor, imperatively demands a thorough rehabilitation of our navy. Nothing can be more inconsistent with true public economy than withholding the means necessary to accomplish the objects entrusted by the Constitution to the national Legislature. One of these objects, which is of paramount importance, is declared by our fundamental law to be the provision for the "common defense." Surely nothing is more essential to the defense of the United States and of all our people than the efficiency of our navy. If we heed the teachings of history we shall not forget that in the life of every nation emergencies may arise when a resort to arms can alone save it from dishonor."

Ten years later, President Harrison expressed himself with like emphasis when he said:

"There should be no hesitation in promptly completing a navy of the best modern type, large enough to enable this country to display its flag in all seas for the protection of its citizens and its extending commerce. It is essential to the dignity of this nation and to that peaceful influence which it should exercise on this hemisphere that its navy should be adequate, both upon the shores of the Atlantic and of the Pacific."

Happily, more than a beginning has been made in elevating the nation into a naval power.

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SOME TYPES OF MEN OF SELF CULTURE:

THE LATE HANNIBAL HAMLIN, AMERICAN STATESMAN

HANNIBAL HAMLIN had marked natural gifts that are bestowed on men who are called to wide careers, and he was reared under conditions that contributed to shape his course. He had a striking personality; in his prime he was six feet in height and was endowed with immense physical strength and endurance. His swarthy complexion, dark, piercing eyes, and simplicity of manner, gave him the appearance of an Indian sachem. His democratic ways bespoke a kind heart and deep interest in our common humanity. He was descended from good New England revolutionary stock. His grandfather was Eleazer Hamlin, of Harvard, Massachusetts, who was an officer of note in the Continental army. He had three sons in his company at one time, and one, Colonel Africa Hamlin, was among the founders of the Society of the Cincinnati. Hannibal Hamlin's mother, Anna Livermore Hamlin, was related to Samuel Livermore, a member of the Constitutional Congress, President Pro Tem. of the United States Senate for several terms, and finally Chief Justice of New Hampshire.

Born at Paris Hill, Me., August 27, 1809, Hannibal Hamlin lived in his early years in the heart of nature among the yeomanry of Maine. Owing to the death of his father, young Hamlin was deprived of a thorough education. The care of his mother's farm fell on his shoulders, but this served to stimulate his ambition to obtain what schooling he could and proceed to a profession. Although he had to rise at five o'clock in the morning, take care of the cattle, and work all day on the farm, yet he managed to snatch a few hours a day for his studies. Not infrequently he could be seen reading law and hoeing corn at the same time. Hamlin learned surveying, taught school, and also published a weekly newspaper for six months with Horatio King* in order to earn money to support himself while completing his legal studies in a well-established office. Finally he was able to spend a year in an office in Portland, Maine, the senior member of the firm being General Fessenden, one of the first presidents of the New England Anti-Slavery Society, and father of William Pitt Fessenden.

Hamlin settled in Hampden, Me., and began the practice of his profession in that town. While he remained at the bar he was very successful, but he entered politics too soon to develop his powers as a jurist. Yet circumstances indicate that he attracted the attention of able men who regarded him as a lawyer of uncommon promise. Sidney Bartlett, for many years at the head of the Boston bar and one of the greatest lawyers New England ever produced, was associated with Hamlin in several suits, and as a result strongly urged him to remain in the practice of his profession. But Hamlin was a born politician, an Andrew Jackson Democrat, and he was elected to the Legislature within a few years after he had settled in Hampden. He served five consecutive terms and was thrice Speaker of the House, being the youngest man who had filled this position up to that time.

In the Legislature, Hamlin's career as an anti-slavery leader began, and it is the most picturesque and interesting feature of his political life. At this period the abolitionists were becoming active, though they were bitterly denounced as disunionists and repelled by both political parties. One method of procedure the abolitionists had in ventilating their opinions was to bombard Congress and the State legislatures with petitions to abolish slavery. To stop this, Congress passed the infamous gag law. The pro-slavery Democrats of Maine upheld this law — at least they approved its purpose — but they were unwilling to allow the abolitionists to present petitions to the Maine Legislature. Hamlin said many a time: "I hope to see this accursed thing of slavery die out; I certainly believe God in His own good time and way will extinguish it; I will always fight it; but, while I believe in abolition and expect it to come, I do not believe in the abolitionists and their methods."† Nevertheless, Hamlin desired that the abo-

*Postmaster-General during the latter part of Buchanan's Administration.

†Public speeches reported in newspapers.

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tionists should have justice, and taking the floor on one occasion he said, in substance: "You must hear these people. They are American citizens, and the Constitution guarantees them the rights of free speech and petition."

The Abolitionists were heard, though the pro-slavery men were incensed against Mr. Hamlin; and then began that long fight between him and the slave party in Maine which ended only when the civil war abolished the "peculiar institution."

Hamlin was first nominated for Congress in 1840, when he was thirty-one years old. He beat the party machine in convention, but was defeated at the polls by Elisha H. Allen, the Whig candidate, who was afterwards Chief Justice of the Hawaiian Islands. This, however, was the year of the Whig cyclone, and at the next election Hamlin was chosen. After this he came rapidly to the front in the House as a debater, and finally became one of the leaders of the anti-slavery Democracy. The first speech of importance he made was a short, but vigorous, attack on the gag law, which he arraigned as an unconstitutional measure. John Quincy Adams, who had for ten years led the fight against this obnoxious rule, paid Mr. Hamlin marked attention while he was speaking and eulogized him in a warm compliment. Adams thereafter showed a hearty interest in his young colleague, while Hamlin always spoke of Adams as the real father of the Republican party, and one of the greatest and best men he ever knew.

Other notable speeches made by Hamlin were in opposition to the annexation of Texas as a Slave State, in exposing the plot of the slave power to betray Oregon into the hands of the British government, and in denunciation of the conspiracy to force slavery into Oregon. The slave party threatened to pass a vote of censure on Hamlin, while his anti-slavery Democratic colleagues sought to make him their candidate for Speaker.

Perhaps the most picturesque incident in Hamlin's two terms in the House was his connection with the Wilmot Proviso. The credit of devising this measure belongs to Jacob Brinkerhoff, of Ohio. He knew that he could not obtain the floor at the necessary time because he was known as an anti-slavery man. He therefore asked David Wilmot to present the proviso, and Wilmot being popular with the Southern members of the House, on account of his free trade views, obtained the floor. The House passed the bill, but the Senate, as we know, did not act. At the next session Wilmot, though prepared to introduce the proviso again, did not appear when the time came for action. He always claimed that President Polk purposely detained him in the White House. The anti-slavery men placed Hamlin in charge of the Proviso, and, after a severe parliamentary fight and a dramatic scene, Hamlin succeeded in presenting the now historic measure. It passed the House, but was defeated by the Senate. But the proviso became the platform of the anti-slavery men of both parties, and they stood on it together to prevent the extension of slavery into free soil. Eventually it became the cardinal principle of the Republican party, of which Hamlin was one of the founders.

In 1846, when he was thirty-seven years old, Mr. Hamlin became a candidate for the United States Senate. He was the choice of the majority of his party, but the pro-slavery Democrats marked him as an object of displeasure, on account of his anti-slavery course in the House. They bolted from him, and after the Legislature had balloted for six weeks, Mr. Hamlin was defeated by one vote. Two years later, Senator Fairfield died, and Mr. Hamlin obtained his party's nomination by one vote and was elected. His first speech in the Senate was a powerful and convincing effort to prove that a so-called compromise bill was a conspiracy to let slavery into Oregon, California and New Mexico. Abraham Lincoln, then a member of the House, heard the speech, and twelve years afterwards, when Lincoln and Hamlin first met, Lincoln recalled the speech and told Hamlin that it had made a strong impression on him. Senator Hamlin at this period also reviewed at length the conspiracy to prevent California from becoming a Free State and worked with the anti-slavery Senators on all occasions to defeat the plans of the slave power.

In 1850, Mr. Hamlin was a candidate for a full term in the Senate. He was renominated by two-thirds of his party in the Legislature; but by the accidents

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of politics a small group of pro-slavery Democrats, by combining with the Whigs, managed to hold the balance of power for two months and prevented Mr. Hamlin's re-election as a party man. They offered him terms of compromise when he was within a few votes of election, but he refused to modify in the slightest degree his opposition to slavery, and was finally elected by the aid of some Free Soilers, who gave him a majority of one vote in the Senate and two in the House. This incident shows how real and besetting were the difficulties Mr. Hamlin had to contend with in fighting slavery as a party man and within constitutional lines, and also enables one to see the strength of his devotion to principle. William Cullen Bryant, who was a personal friend of Mr. Hamlin's and at the time editor of the New York "Evening Post," wrote of Mr. Hamlin's triumph: "With examples of treachery and faltering around him for the past three years, Mr. Hamlin has not swerved a hair's breadth from the rectitude of his course as an opponent of slavery extension in every shape in which the scheme has presented itself. . . . He is a safe, comprehensive and rational statesman."

Mr. Hamlin's status in the Senate was secured by his appointment as chairman of the Committee on Commerce. This body was then Congress's most important business arm. The country's rapid growth and development called for the building of more postoffices, custom houses, and for a larger share than is necessary now of attention to rivers and harbors. The Committee on Commerce had to pass on these and other practical questions, and Mr. Hamlin's time as chairman was fully occupied. An interesting change was now worked in him. He became a man of action; he was impatient of talk; he grew taciturn and ultimately was known as a silent Senator. He said that Congress talked too much and did not work enough. Henceforth he rarely spoke himself, though occasionally he would rise to cut the knot of debate. Nevertheless, Senator Hamlin became a power in the inner circle of the Democratic party, for he was an acknowledged authority on Parliamentary procedure, and was intimately associated with Thomas H. Benton, Levi Woodbury, and their adherents. With Benton, in 1848, he strove to have the Democracy nominate Woodbury for President, against candidates like Cass, Buchanan, and Douglas, who were identified with the pro-slavery wing of their party. It was by this and similar action that Mr. Hamlin continued to fight against the deliverance of the party of Jefferson and Jackson into the hands of the slavery propagandists. He was not the man to give up the ship while there was hope of keeping it afloat.

But the machinery of the party was soon in the hands of the Calhoun wing, and they were bound to rule or ruin. When they struck down the Missouri Compromise, that time-honored bulwark against slavery, Senator Hamlin severed his allegiance with Democracy and in a notable speech in the Senate stated his reasons for doing so, at the same time resigning the chairmanship of the Committee of Commerce. A single reference to this speech may be made to note its incisive and patriotic character. Denouncing the Calhoun doctrine, that "the National flag carries slavery wherever it floats," Mr. Hamlin said that Drake's national ode should be re-written to read:

"Forever float that standard sheet
Where breathes the foe who fall before us,
With Slavery's soil beneath our feet,
And Slavery's banner streaming o'er us!"

Mr. Hamlin closed his memorable utterance by saying that "these events leave me only one unpleasant duty, which is to declare that I can maintain political associations with no party that insists upon such doctrines; that I can support no man for President who avows and recognizes them; and that the little power with which God has endowed me shall be employed to battle manfully, firmly and consistently for his defeat, demanded as it is by the highest interests of the country which owns all my allegiance."

The young Republican party of Maine nominated Mr. Hamlin against his wishes as its candidate for Governor. Then followed a campaign which Thomas B. Reed has described as a "triumphal procession from one end of Maine to the other, the like of which the State never saw before nor has seen since." Up to this time Maine had been a rock-ribbed Democratic State. Mr. Hamlin was elected by a majority of about 20,000

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votes. A revolution had been effected. This was a striking illustration of Hamlin's wonderful power as a speaker among the common people. His style was simple and direct. He never overshot the mark. The people both understood and believed in him. He was now returned to the United States Senate and held his seat until 1860, when he was elected Vice-President on the same ticket with Abraham Lincoln. Mr. Hamlin, it should be said, did not desire this high office; indeed, he was nominated without his knowledge or consent; though after he was nominated he accepted. He always affirmed that he would rather be Senator than President, and he did not want to be President.

Mr. Hamlin enjoyed exceedingly cordial relations with President Lincoln. It was said that no President and Vice-President since the days of Jackson and Van Buren were on closer or more friendly terms. Mr. Hamlin's own words in speaking of his relations with Mr. Lincoln prove this. A few of Mr. Lincoln's acts tell the same story in an interesting manner. The President often consulted Mr. Hamlin about official and personal affairs. For example, Mr. Lincoln showed Vice-President Hamlin the Proclamation of Emancipation before it had been seen by any other of his official or confidential advisers. At Mr. Lincoln's request, Mr. Hamlin made some suggestions about the wording of the instrument and Mr. Lincoln accepted the two emendations he offered. An illustration of Mr. Hamlin's sense of fairness and delicacy is the remark he made as to the authorship of the edict. "The Emancipation Proclamation," said he, "was Mr. Lincoln's own act, and no one else can claim any credit in connection with it." Mr. Hamlin urged the President to arm the colored men and received from him the order to the War Department to give effect to the call. In his turn Mr. Hamlin assisted Mr. Lincoln in his candidacy for renomination. At his suggestion Mr. Lincoln placed his interests in Maine in the hands of James G. Blaine, who was then coming forward as a political leader.

A stampede movement to nominate a Southern War Democrat for Vice-President in 1864 resulted in the choice of Andrew Johnson. Of all the gossip based merely on hearsay evidence, and other contradictory statements regarding Mr. Lincoln's relations with Mr. Hamlin, two facts distinctively manifest his preference for Mr. Hamlin, while they are in harmony with his record of sincerity, honesty and loyalty to his friends. One was his act in instructing the Illinois delegation to vote for Mr. Hamlin; another was his tender of the position of Secretary of the Treasury to Mr. Hamlin. Circumstances however prevented Mr. Hamlin from entering the Cabinet.

When Johnson became President, he, at the request of Charles Sumner and other Massachusetts Republicans, appointed Mr. Hamlin Collector of the Port of Boston. This was one of the most lucrative positions under the Government—the salary and emoluments aggregating $30,000 a year. But after Mr. Hamlin had held the position for a brief year, he resigned it because he could not see how with honor he could hold the office under a President who was endeavoring to enforce a national policy which he regarded as unpatriotic, if not positively dangerous. Mr. Hamlin, in his letter of resignation, arraigned Johnson sharply and spoke of the President's course in plain and terse English.

But Mr. Hamlin did not remain in private life, for in 1869 he was returned to the Senate, and again re-elected in 1875. During his last two terms in the Senate, Mr. Hamlin devoted himself to practical legislation on special lines of work, such as those relating to scientific, agricultural and educational subjects. For example, in the Legislature and the House he had worked to improve the United States postal service. As chairman of the Postoffice Committee in the Senate, he was able to accomplish larger results. As regent of the Smithsonian Institution and the intimate friend of Professor Joseph Henry, he was able to render him no little service in the interest of science. He also favored the giving of national aid to State colleges and took a lively interest in the growth of these institutions. A notable incident in Mr. Hamlin's closing years of service in the Senate was his opposition to the scheme of certain Republican leaders to abrogate the Burlingame treaty with China. He insisted that the nation's honor demanded that the treaty should be observed. Another incident that also attracted widespread interest

was Mr. Hamlin's opposition to the Southern policy of President R. B. Hayes. He denounced this as party dishonor.

Mr. Hamlin declined re-election to the Senate in 1881. He had served in that body for a quarter of a century, and had been at Washington for thirty-four years. President Garfield appointed Mr. Hamlin Minister to Spain and he accepted the position on condition that he might resign within a year. After Mr. Hamlin returned from Spain, he retired to private life and spent the evening of his old age at his home in Bangor, Me. Occasionally he suffered his repose to be broken to make a speech. One such occasion was when he urged the Legislature of Maine, in 1887, to repeal the law which imposed capital punishment for murder. This was a matter he had argued for precisely a quarter of a century, insisting that the law of Moses was not the law of Christ, and the final repeal of the statute was his reward. Another interesting speech was one he delivered in 1891 before the Republican Club of New York City, advocating that Lincoln's birthday should be made a national holiday. This he first suggested in 1887. To-day the states of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, Wisconsin, and Washington, observe Lincoln's birthday as a holiday by act of Legislature, as a result of this movement Mr. Hamlin originated. His argument was that Lincoln was the saviour of his country and should be honored equally with Washington, its father. This speech was made at Mr. Hamlin's last public appearance, and it was his last message to the people of his country. Like Thomas Jefferson and John Adams, Hannibal Hamlin died on the Fourth of July. The year of his death was 1891.

As a statesman Mr. Hamlin is to be ranked among the practical, clear-sighted, and vigorous men of his day who dealt with events in a rapidly changing age. Mr. Hamlin's training was general rather than specific, and it may be said of him, as was said of Benton, while he is not named as the author of many great measures, yet he was of immense influence in shaping legislation during the country's formative period. The various positions Mr. Hamlin held while a member of Congress denote the confidence his colleagues had in him and show the influence he exerted. In the House he was chairman of the Committee of Elections, and, during the twenty-five years he was in the Senate, he was chairman at different times of the Committees on Commerce, the Post Office and on Foreign Relations. In the presidential campaigns of 1860 it was claimed by the Republican Press that Mr. Hamlin was the best man of affairs in the Senate. He certainly had a remarkable knowledge of the politics as well as of the general business of the country. The truth is, Mr. Hamlin's comprehensive knowledge of affairs and sound and practical statesmanship were somewhat obscured by his unique political record. The country saw the characteristic side of the man — his rugged honesty, democratic temper, simplicity, faith in common humanity — more clearly than it perceived the importance of his legislative acts. It was the man it saw before it recognized and appreciated the statesman, yet the record of Mr. Hamlin's acts and attitude in Congress would comprise volumes.

Many stories are told of Mr. Hamlin's personal traits, habits and peculiarities. At the close of his public career he remained as simple and unaffected as when he was an unknown lawyer at Hampden. He would not change even with the fashion, and to the end of his life he wore an old style dress coat. He owned a farm the larger part of his life and, like Coriolanus of old, worked on it himself until within a few years of his death. He also made his sons and grandsons help him in this work, that they might appreciate the dignity of manual labor. Moreover, he never failed to make his farm pay. He loved the plain people and "the boys in blue" and his last appearances among the latter, when they realized that he was about to pass off the stage, were occasions of touching scenes. In his closing years, when at home and out of political harness, he softened and was reconciled to many former bitter opponents. Silent about himself and always modest, Mr. Hamlin refused to write a line in way of a memoir. He said: "My memory is uncertain and I fear I might do unintentional injustice to some. For myself, I shall be content with whatever estimate my countrymen place on my services."

CHARLES E. HAMLIN.

BANGOR, ME.

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RECENT ASTRONOMICAL DISCOVERY

IN the Encyclopædia Britannica, the late R. A. Proctor gave an interesting résumé of Astronomy up to the period when the ninth edition of that colossal work went to press. The following is a brief statement of the more salient points in astronomical research and discovery since the publication of Mr. Proctor's article (See E. B., Vol. II, pp. 744–823). That extensive and important branch of the science which consists in the more exact discovery of numbers, distances, masses, etc., may be lightly passed over, in order to devote attention more especially to new discoveries of facts or laws.

The twenty years in question are remarkable for the addition of three new satellites to the eighteen previously known. Perhaps no discovery during the nineteenth century, except that of the planet Neptune, excited more surprise and interest, both among astronomers and the public, than that of the satellites of Mars, by Professor Hall, in August, 1877. These satellites are remarkable for two features, their extreme smallness, and the short period of the inner one. Although Mars is so much nearer the earth than any other planet having a satellite, its satellites are among the difficult objects, only to be seen with telescopes of considerable size. Their diameter is probably between five and ten miles, so that they are the smallest bodies of the solar system, some of the asteroids excepted. The inner one makes its revolution in the remarkably short period of 7 h. 39 m. 14 s. — less than one-third that of the rotation of the planet on its axis. This is a new and remarkable circumstance, of which the consequence is, that to an observer on Mars the satellite rises in the west and sets in the east.

Jupiter's New Satellite

In September, 1892, a new satellite of Jupiter was discovered by Barnard with the great telescope of the Lick Observatory. It is much nearer to Jupiter than the four satellites already known, and makes a revolution in 11 h. 57 m. 23 s. It can be seen only with a very few of the most powerful telescopes of the world, owing not only to its minutness, but to its closeness to the planet, in whose rays it is lost to ordinary telescopic vision.

The number of small planets known to circulate between Mars and Jupiter has increased to more than four hundred. The rapid increase of the past four years in the rate of discovery is due to the application of the art of photography. In this work the lead has been taken by Charlois of Nice and Wolf of Heidelberg. To carry on the search a sensitive plate is exposed in the focus of a telescope having a short focal length (even a large camera might suffice), so constructed as to have a field of view several degrees in extent. After an exposure of one or two hours, innumerable small stars will be photographed on the plate. If a small planet is within the region photographed, it may be detected either by its image being a line instead of a point, or by comparing two plates taken at a short interval. The principle on which the discovery rests is, that while the stars remain perfectly at rest, the asteroids are in motion. The number of asteroids already known which are rediscovered in this way much exceeds the number of new ones. We conclude, therefore, that the new ones yet to be discovered are extremely small, and it may be expected that before many years a limit will be reached beyond which it is not worth while to seek for more. Even now it is not possible for astronomers to keep an accurate run of the motions of the four hundred known ones.

The Planet Mars

Great popular interest has been felt in certain features of the planets, notably Mars. We may mention, in this connection, the work of Mr. Percival Lowell's private observatory, founded at Flagstaff, Arizona, for the express purpose of observing Mars during the opposition of 1894. The planet was never before studied under conditions more favorable. The focus of interest has been the so-called canals, discovered by Schiaparelli. The term is, however, a misnomer, because these lines to be visible at the distance of the earth, must be at least from 50 to 100 miles broad. They are said to consist of a network of fine, dark lines, passing from point

to point on the planet, with dark spots at the points of meeting. It must be said that, owing to the extreme difficulty of detecting these canals, there is still some difference of opinion as to their exact nature. Quite possibly, under more perfect atmospheric conditions than astronomers have hitherto availed themselves of, the details would appear entirely different; indeed, the latest paper by Barnard indicates that with the finest seeing ever available at Mount Hamilton, and the great advantages of the 36-inch telescope, the surface of Mars appears entirely different from the drawings of Schiaparelli and others. What the latter describe as fine lines, he then saw as irregular, hazy streaks.

The question whether Mars has an atmosphere sufficiently dense to make its presence evident by the most delicate observation, is still an unsettled one. Both Huyghens and Janssen thought they had found evidences of aqueous vapor in the atmosphere of Mars. This evidence was afforded by those lines in the spectrum due to such vapor being better marked than they would have been were the light reflected from the planet itself. But Campbell, at the Lick Observatory, made a series of investigations with the spectroscope, under conditions more favorable than those enjoyed by any previous observer, owing to the height of his station and the serenity of the air. His observations were made by comparing the spectrum of Mars and of the moon, when the latter was in the immediate neighborhood of the planet. The moon is well known to have no visible atmosphere. If, then, Mars has an atmosphere sufficiently dense to make the spectral lines much stronger, or has sufficient watery vapor to produce that effect, there ought to be a difference between the spectrum of Mars and that of the moon. Mr. Campbell could find none. It does not follow from this that Mars has no atmosphere, but only that the atmosphere, if it does exist, is probably much rarer than that on the earth, and perhaps is without aqueous vapor.

Venus A very careful study of the appearance of Venus with a view to fixing its time of rotation, and ascertaining the nature of its surface, has been made in Italy by Schiaparelli, and in southern France by Perrotin. For two centuries it has been supposed by some that Venus rotated on its axis in a period not differing much from 24 hours. At the same time the more cautious astronomers have always maintained that the time of rotation was altogether unknown, because the spots on Venus, if they existed at all, were so indistinct that no one could trace them out, and follow their motion from night to night, with entire certainty. It was therefore not so surprising as it might have been, when Schiaparelli announced that Venus, like our moon, rotated on its axis in the same time that it revolves around the sun, and therefore always presented the same face to the sun. Quite recently, Perrotin has studied the planet from the summit of Mount Mounier, in southern France, with a view of testing Schiaparelli's conclusions, and has convinced himself of their correctness. But it is quite likely that most astronomers will still be somewhat sceptical. The fact is, that Venus, when seen through a telescope of high power, even the best, presents a glaring aspect, somewhat like that of burnished metal shining by the light of a strong fire, which prevents the observer from making out anything in the shape of fine details. It is true that different parts of the surface present very different degrees of brightness, according to the way the light is falling upon them, and appearances somewhat like bright spots are seen near the upper or lower limb. But it is still open to question whether there is anything to be outlined with such distinctness that an observer can positively identify spots or other markings on the planet.

The question as to the form and constitution of the satellites of Jupiter has given rise to much discussion. Barnard, while observing the transit of the first satellite over the disk of the planet, was surprised to see it look double. After long and careful discussion of this appearance, he concluded that the apparent duplicity was an illusion, produced by a dark belt across the body of the satellite. Prof. W. H. Pickering, who observed the satellites under exceptionally fine conditions at Arequipa, Peru, found them to exhibit irregular and anomalous forms at various times, showing a very great ellipticity of figure.

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The Rings of Saturn

Interesting results continue to be obtained with the spectroscope. Among these we must give a high place to the very delicate determinations of the revolutions of the rings of Saturn made by Keeler at Albany. These rings were long a marvel to astronomers, because it was clearly impossible that solid bodies of this kind could be maintained in equilibrium around the planet, or could even hold themselves together under the attraction of that body. It was therefore long ago surmised that they could be nothing but clouds of minute satellites or particles, which at so great a distance presented the appearance of a continuous mass of matter. But no proof of this had ever been obtained, except that it was impossible to see how it could be anything else. Keeler, by spectroscopic observation, was able to show that the inner portion of the rings actually revolved around the planet at a more rapid rate than the outer portion. This observation was soon confirmed by other observers. It shows that the view that the rings are a cloud of satellites or particles, originally propounded by Cassini more than 200 years ago, and more recently developed by Maxwell and others, is the true one.

Comets

Although few comets of great brilliancy have been discovered during the twenty years in question, the patience of careful observers who are continually sweeping the sky with comet-seekers to detect any new visitor of this class, is frequently rewarded by success. Many of these bodies revolve in orbits which are apparently parabolic, so that they will not again return for many centuries. But an unusually large number of periodic comets have recently been discovered. It is now fairly well settled that these bodies become periodic through the accident of having at some time passed very near a large planet, nearly always Jupiter, which by its attraction so changes their parabolic orbits as to make them elliptic. In this case the comet becomes a permanent member of the system, until it again happens to pass very near Jupiter, when its orbit may be again changed. Continued observations have confirmed the view that a comet thus brought into the system is short-lived, if we measure life by a celestial standard. It gradually grows fainter as it goes through its successive revolutions, and a considerable number have entirely disappeared. The tenuous masses of which they are composed are gradually scattered so as to be no longer visible. Their fate is much like that of a cloud of tobacco smoke in the air. If the orbit happens to intersect that of the earth, then at every passage of the earth through it we may have a meteoric shower caused by the atmosphere striking the invisible remains of the comet which are scattered around its orbit. Such showers occur in August and October, and sometimes in November.

Distance of the Sun

Among the most interesting astronomical events of the period in question were the two transits of Venus, which occurred on Dec. 7–8, 1874, and Dec. 5, 1882. The first was not visible either in Western Europe or on the American continent. The region of visibility included most of the Pacific Ocean, Asia, Australia, and the neighboring islands. Very elaborate and costly expeditions were organized by the leading countries of the world, especially the United States, Great Britain France and Germany, to make the necessary observations. As the phenomenon had to be observed in opposite hemispheres, the authorities of the United States selected stations on Kerguelen Island, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Chatham Island, in the southern hemisphere; and at Vladivostock, Nagasaki and Pekin, in the northern hemisphere. In the general average, the American expeditions were unfortunate as regarded weather. At every station the observations were seriously interfered with, either by clouds, or by haze and dust.

So far as the exact determination of the solar parallax is concerned, the results scarcely corresponded to the popular expectation. It was found that the observation of the moments of contact of the limb to Venus with that of the sun, on which the result had generally been made to depend, could not be made with the accuracy that had been anticipated. The best observers fre-

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quently differed by a considerable fraction of a minute in their estimates. Other methods were, however, more successful. The measures of the distance between the centre of the sun and that of Venus, made by the Germans with heliometers, and by Americans with photographic apparatus, appear to have been fairly reliable. But the fact is, that other methods of determining the solar parallax have been developed, so that less reliance is now placed on the observations in question.

These drawbacks did not prevent very elaborate preparations for the transit of 1882, which had the great advantage of being visible over the entire American continent, where the former one was quite invisible. It was supposed that with the aid of the experience derived in 1874 the methods of observation could be greatly improved. This was the case with the American photographic methods, but was not the case with the telescopic methods used by observers generally.

The most recent researches show that the problem of the exact value of the solar parallax, notwithstanding the progress that has been made, the elaboration of new methods, and the thorough discussion of old ones, is still in an unsatisfactory state. From the German heliometer measures made on the transits of Venus in 1874 and 1882, as just mentioned, Dr. Auwers has found a parallax of 8.88″. In 1889, on the proposal of Gill, several observatories in both hemispheres engaged in a campaign to determine the solar parallax by heliometer observations on those asteroids which came near the earth during the times of opposition. The result was 8.80″. This seemed to be confirmed by a number of other methods, which agreed remarkably with it. Up to the beginning of 1895, little doubt was felt among astronomers who paid attention to the subject that this figure was extremely near the truth. Then it was found that the observed motion of the orbit of Venus and of the ecliptic could not be reconciled with this value; indeed, that the only value which would bring everything into accordance was 8.76″. Whereabouts, between the limit 8.76″ and 8.80″, the truth may lie, must be left to future investigation. Translated into miles, we may say that the mean distance of the earth from the sun lies between 92,900,000 and 93,300,000 miles. The mysterious motion of the perihelion of Mercury, which is greater than that which calculation shows to be produced by the action of all the planets, is not yet satisfactorily explained. Heretofore, it has generally been attributed to the attraction of some unknown bodies near the sun. But the perihelion of Mars is found to be probably affected with a similar motion, though smaller in amount. The latest suggestion on this subject is, that the law of gravitation may not vary exactly as the inverse square. A very slight deviation from this law would account for the observed anomalies. But many years of accurate observation, and a large amount of profound mathematical investigation, are requisite before further light can be thrown on the question.

The Sun and its Constituent Elements

On the physical constitution of the sun it can hardly be said that much new light has been thrown, though many facts have been collected. Observations of the solar corona are still made at every available total eclipse; the protuberances are from time to time observed with the spectroscope and the spots on the sun are observed or photographed at several great observatories. All this work confirms what was previously known, especially that the spottedness of the sun goes through a regular period of 11 years, during a part of which time the spots are large and numerous, while during the remainder of the period few or none may be visible. Quite recently, however, interesting researches have been made on the light of the sun which belong to chemistry and physics as much as to astronomy. Among these may be mentioned the discovery of a new element which has long been known to exist in the sun, being shown by a line in the spectrum, but was sought in vain on the earth. In 1895 this element was discovered on the earth, in a rare mineral, clevite, found in Norway. Curiously enough, this discovery was almost coincident with that of argon, the new element of the atmosphere, by Rayleigh and Ramsay. Among the great advances in the study of the sun's light must be named the photographic spectrum of the sun now being completed by Rowland, including his measures of a great number

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of spectral lines, and the investigation of the spectrum of the heat-rays made by Langley at the Astrophysical Observatory in Washington. These researches may, in the future, be expected to throw more light on the question of the relation of climate to the heat of the sun.

The Stars Passing outside the solar system to the region of the stars, we find a number of investigations of the motion of the solar system toward some point in, or not far from, the constellation Hercules. Owing to the motion of the stars themselves, however, there is not yet an exact agreement as to the amount or direction of this motion. In a general way we may say that if the spectator looks up to the heavens a little south of the zenith, on a summer evening, he may correctly imagine our earth and everything upon it as moving toward the constellations he there sees, with a speed of several miles per second. The motion has been going on since the creation, and will probably continue for unknown ages.

The number of stars known to be variable has increased from 100 to more than 250. For the most part, it seems that the variability is due to a cycle of changes going on within the star itself, similar, perhaps, to those of spots on the sun. But in the case of Algol, a star long known to be variable, it is now almost certain that the changes consist in a partial eclipse of the star, produced by the revolution of a dark body, having nearly the same size as the star itself, revolving around it. The period of revolution is, of course, that between the partial eclipses, about 2 days and 21 hours. Other indications of dark bodies moving around stars and disturbing their motion have been brought to light. Among the most interesting is that of Procyon, a star of the first magnitude, which is affected by a periodic motion, showing that an invisible satellite is moving around it in a period of 20 years. But the most careful search with the great telescopes of the world, even that of the Lick Observatory, have failed to reveal the object. Chandler has found evidences of a similar revolution in the case of Algol, to which he attributes a change which has been noticed in the apparent period of the star. It is not, however, considered that this motion is yet fully established.

The general outcome of these and other discoveries of the same kind, is, that many of the stars are probably accompanied by planets almost as large as themselves, and therefore very different from those of our system. A most powererful instrument for these discoveries is the spectroscope, by which the motions of the star to or from the earth are discerned.

The most accurate measures made on the parallax of stars by the aid of the heliometer, have failed to show any star nearer than the nearest already known, δ Centauri. It is remarkable that no other stars, even of the first magnitude, are found to be so near as this. Most of those which have been measured have distances from five to ten times as great. Beyond the latter limit, the distance becomes unfathomable by any known method.

New Sun Among the new stars which have been found the most noteworthy was that of 1892, which has since been called Nova Aurigæ, after the constellation in which it appeared. As in the case of other stars suddenly blazing out, the spectrum was found to be an extremely complicated one. It showed apparent displacements of the bright or dark lines, indicating rapid motion to or from the earth. But the spectrum changed in a manner which was very bewildering to one who attempted to construct any certain and well-defined theory of the nature of the star. That there was an explosion or outburst of some sort seems beyond doubt. Whether this arose from a dark body striking the star, or from a process going on inside of the star itself, science cannot decide. We have already cited the evidence of numerous dark bodies moving around or in the neighborhood of stars, and it is not at all impossible that such a body might at last fall into its central sun. But it is equally true that there is no positive proof of this. All that can be said is, that the sudden blazing up of a star, previously very small, perhaps quite unknown, so that its brightness is increased scores, or even hundreds of times, is not a very uncommon phenomenon in the heavens, but the cause is yet unknown.

SIMON NEWCOMB.

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THEOSOPHY: "THE WISDOM-RELIGION" A COMPOUND OF MYSTICISM AND CHARLATANRY

THERE is force as well as pungency in the old saying, "When the gods go, the half-gods come." Though we owe to Eastern fable not a little of the beauty, and we might add the moral majesty, which surround as with a halo the character and ethical precepts of the founder of Buddhism, it would be mere hyperbole to invest with either attribute the person and work of any one of the triumvirate of religious enthusiasts who have undertaken in these latter days to set aside Christianity in favor of the doctrine and teaching of Sakya Muni. Oriental fervor may fitly hang on the meditative brow of Buddha the garland of saintliness; but not so fitly may Occidental enthusiasm pay homage to Gautama's latter-day disciples — the late Madame Blavatsky, Col. Olcott, and Mrs. Besant.

But we shall be told that it is easy to deride, not so easy to be either appreciative or just. Both we would be in estimating the claims of a new or revived revelation, even though we had deemed it, in its Gnostic or Buddhist origin, a vacuous gospel and a decadent faith. In matters of religious belief the attitude of toleration, if not of sympathy, is, we own, incumbent on all of us; but that we should be asked to be kind to every religious fad, and tolerant towards the charlatanry that arrogates to itself supernatural power, is a rather heavy exaction.

The strain is the heavier upon one's good nature when one is seriously asked to accept mummeries and mysticism for earnest longings after the higher life,

Mummeries and Rhapsody

and to be pointed to the better way through a *rechauffé* of Gnosticism or a confused jumble of a more or less idealized Buddhism. To reject salvation through Theosophy may be to show ourselves unable to rise to the lofty intellectual plane on which its tenets can only be understood, and to prove ourselves incapable of appreciating the speculative sublimities of the Oriental mind. But Macaulay, who well knew the East, has put us on our guard against Eastern as well as Western rhapsody and given this solace to the commonplace intellect: "It is a mistake," he says, "to suppose that subtle speculations touching the Divine attributes, the origin of evil, the necessity of human actions, the foundation of moral obligation, imply any high degree of intellectual culture. Such speculations are, on the contrary, in a peculiar manner the delight of intelligent children and of half-civilized men." At all events, when one finds the faith good enough in which one has been brought up, while at the same time it commands the assent of both heart and reason, it is an effort to be gracious to those eager souls so smitten with unrest as to yearn with every break of day for an astral body and a new religion. The cravings of these good but troublesome people recall Bishop Watson's ironical definition of Protestantism — "the right of saying theologically what you think, and of thinking what you please." This appears to be the mental attitude towards religion of not a few in our day, and the measure of the liberty taken when each audaciously invents for himself what he will believe.

Theosophy comes in the Wake of Spiritualism

It would seem natural that Theosophy should come to us in the wake of Spiritualism, and that both should seek in the occultism of the Far East the stimulus of mystery necessary to the propagation of the one and the rehabilitation of the other. But here we must be careful not to wrong the new gospel, for Theosophists, we believe, are now anxious to disavow connection with Spiritualism, though "to explore the hidden mysteries of Nature and the latent powers of man" is one of the prominent aims of the brotherhood. The sibyl of the society we know, at any rate, dabbled largely in necromancy and spiritism, and in her work "Isis Unveiled," much space is given to divinations and to the laudation of the occult sciences of India and Egypt. Moreover, when Madame Blavatsky accompanied Colonel Olcott to India, her sojourn there was marked by such an exercise of so-called supernatural powers as to lead the Psychical Research Society of Eng-

land to send out some of its trusted members to investigate the phenomena, an action fatal to the pretensions of the founder of Theosophy. Moncure Conway has since also told us how the high priestess of the new religion was laughing in her sleeve while she was sending reports of these alleged miraculous occurrences to her devotees in England.

It is disingenuous, therefore, in the adherents of Theosophy to disclaim kinship with Spiritualism. Is it not claimed for Madame Blavatsky that she spent thirty years of her life in the study of the occult sciences, and that in propagating her gospel she was the chosen medium of a mysterious brotherhood of adepts, called Mahatmas, who in Thibet had reached an incredible age through the practice of magical arts? Is not the society also disseminating translations of Hindoo works on astrology, chiromancy, divination, and magic, together with Colonel Olcott's lectures on "Theosophy, Religion and Occult Science," and Mr. Sinnett's more serious contributions to theosophical science, "The Occult World" and "Esoteric Buddhism?" Beyond all this, what are the practices Theosophy inculcates on its votaries which have earned for the "secret doctrine"—we shall not say always with discretion—the wrath of preachers and writers, who see in the movement the doings of a "Satanic propaganda," and one bitterly hostile to the Christian religion? We quote from one of these critics (G. H. Pember, M. A., author of "Theosophy, Buddhism, and the Signs of the End"). Says this writer:—

A recent Critic on Theosophy

"Still more strange, after our investigation (into that strange phase of thought—Theosophy—destructive as it is of faith and boldly avowing its Pagan origin), we see the men of this nineteenth century returning to the wisdom of long past ages, and modern thought sustaining its flight upon the wings of ancient lore. Nay, almost every characteristic of antiquity seems to be reappearing. Open intercourse with demons is being renewed on a vast scale in the very heart of Christendom, and even among the hitherto somewhat Sadducean Protestants; numerous circles are carrying on magical practices; attempts are being made to restore the influence of those ancient mysteries which are said to have been always kept up by a few initiates; the old mesmeric healings are being performed; star-gazers and planet-rulers have greatly increased, while many amateur students are zealously assisting to re-establish the power of astrology over the human race; the use of the divining rod and countless other practices of primal and mediæval times are once more becoming common. And, impossible as it would have seemed a few years ago, all these 'superstitions' are floating back to us upon the tide of 'modern thought.' They come no longer veiled in mystery, nor claiming to be miraculous or Divine; but, in accordance with the spirit of the age, present themselves as the fruit of science, as an evidence of the progress of knowledge in regard to the laws of the visible and invisible worlds."

The view here presented of the religious phenomena of the time is certainly far from optimistic. This may be due, in part at least, to the writer's holding peculiar notions about prophecy and the near approach of Antichrist; but his reflections are not without warrant in presence of the widespread tendency of professedly Christian thought to deify Oriental philosophy and toy with theosophical speculation and other vaporous substitutes for religion.

Vaporous substitutes for Religion

What there is in Theosophy to captivate the intellect is at all events due not to the late Madame Blavatsky, still less we should say to her fellow-priestess, Mrs. Besant, but to the "enlightened" Buddha. If there is any attraction to a sane intelligence in Theosophy it is due to the infusion with it of parts of the impressive code of Buddhist ethics. For the rest, there is little but puerilities, which have alienated the interest of many who might otherwise have been drawn to the venerable religion of India by Sir Edwin Arnold's fascinating poetic picture of it. It is significant that the great Oriental savants of Europe will have none of it. Professor Max Müller has told us that he regards Theosophy as nearly as bad as the Anglo-Jewish craze, and adds that "Esoteric Buddhism has no sweet odor in the nostrils of Sanskrit and Pali scholars. They try to keep aloof from it and to avoid all controversy with its prophets and prophetesses."

But it seems hard on them, the great Oriental scholar goes on to say, "that they should be blamed for not speaking out when their silence says really all that is required. Many people, no doubt, are much distressed in their minds when they are told that Christianity is but a second edition of Buddhism. Is it really true? they ask. Why did you not tell us all this before? Surely you must have known it, and were only afraid to tell us. Then follow other questions: Does Buddhism really count more believers than any other religion? Is Buddhism really older than Christianity? And does it really contain many things which are found in the Bible? Now, let us suppose that all this were true. Would it make Christianity less true if it were in a minority, and if the majority of human beings were on the side of Buddhism? Would it make Christianity less true if it were young, and if Buddhism were older by five hundred years? Would it make Christianity less true, if Buddhism contained many things which are taught in the Bible also?" This quizzing of the new theological craze is almost the only treatment it merits. If it deserves more, the sane and conscientious student of Buddhism had better get it anywhere than through the meaningless jargon of such works as the "Secret Doctrine," and "Isis Unveiled."

Apart from its vaunted attestations of pyschic phenomena, what is there in Theosophy to fit it as a religion for the human mind or heart? To its votaries Christianity is a withered creed; to its founders it is a fraud and an object of hatred and suspicion. What is offered in its benign place? Empty phrases about a "Universal Brotherhood of Humanity," to be redeemed in the lump by initiations into the mysteries of an occult world, and by a series of reincarnations the end whereof is annihilation. To promote "the study of Aryan and other Eastern literatures, religions, philosophies, and sciences," it is true, is one of the aims of the society; but the value of this to the neophyte may be judged if it leads to fuddling the mind with mysteries about the "Mahatmas," and seeking monthly illumination at the organ of Theosophy, the journalistic shrine of "Lucifer." To get near "to the primitive source of the secret doctrine of the ages" is no doubt commendable; more commendable, indeed, than is the threat of the founders of the new revelation to keep an eye on Christian missionaries in India, and, in time, to make reports of their conduct to the deluded ones who contribute to their support. In the aim we have just mentioned we get an inkling of the society's tolerance and of its attitude towards the faith of the Christian world.

Infusion of Buddhism into Theosophy

The work of Christian missions in India will bear looking into; in accepting the society's threat as a challenge, we might ask if as much can be said for the proselytizing efforts of Theosophy in the same distant field?

We have said that the chief merit in Theosophy is the incorporation with it of some of the doctrines and ethical precepts of Buddha. But this is rather to degrade Buddhism than to elevate Theosophy. The simplicity and moral power of Buddha's teaching have little analogy in the assumptions and affectations of mystery of Theosophy. Nor is there much of a resemblance between Buddha withdrawing from the world, "pierced by the spectacle of the manifold miseries of humanity," and the charlatan adepts of Theosophy, beguiling the credulous by displays of amateur conjuring. Still more marked, need we say, is the contrast between Buddhism and Christianity, though there are some exceptional points of resemblance.

Though Buddhism makes appeal to no base impulse in the human heart, it fails to minister, as Christianity does, to the higher spiritual instincts of the race. If Buddhism can be called a religion it is a religion without God; "of the supreme creative personal Deity of the great Semitic faiths it is ignorant." Not only is man, in Buddhist doctrine, deprived of an ideal superior to himself, but he is without a purpose in life, save for ascetic contemplation and the mortifying of the body; while his future is a bewildering series of transformations or a pitiless extinction. A pure and elevated morality Buddha no doubt taught, but it is a morality, as Professor Caird remarks, of negation or renunciation. "It lays almost exclusive emphasis on the passive virtues of submission, resignation, indifference to the allurements of the sense

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and passion, deadness to the world and the things of the world; and if it seems to find any place for active benevolence and kindred virtues, it does so only in name, or by a kind of noble inconsistency." Nor has Buddhism ever done anything for liberty, or for the development and reformation of society. In hardly any direction has it aided a people, as Christianity has, in its endeavor after progress.

Buddhist Parallels in the Gospel Story

Nor need we fear to speak of the alleged coincidences between the two religions. Few scholars of the present day are better able to speak of these than is Max Müller, the great Orientalist and editor of "The Sacred Books of the East." Let us hear what he has to say on this point. "I do not mean to deny," says the learned Professor, "that there are similarities between Buddhism and Christianity which are perplexing. Some of them, however, cease to perplex us when we have traced Christianity on one side and Buddhism on the other back to their historical antecedents. Many things which seemed to be alike are then perceived to be totally different in their original intention, while others are simply due to our common human nature."

To a somewhat like conclusion has another Oriental scholar come; we refer to Dr. S. H. Kellogg, whose long residence as a missionary in India entitles him to be heard. In his scholarly comparison of the doctrine and ethics of Buddha with the doctrine and ethics of Christ, in his work entitled "The Light of Asia and the Light of the World," Dr. Kellogg remarks: "Of the coincidences between certain features in the Buddha legend and the Gospel story a large part are imaginary, and disappear upon a close examination of the facts in each case; while of the remainder there is not a single feature of agreement which can be shown to cast a just doubt upon the originality and thorough credibility of the Gospel narrative."

The late Professor Kuenan, the great German theologian, also bears testimony on this point, by affirming "that we must abstain from assigning to Buddhism the smallest direct influence on the origin of Christianity." In a word, he says, "However attractive the hypothesis that brings Jesus into connection with the Buddhists may possibly appear, and however readily it may lend itself to romantic treatment, yet sober and strict historical research gives it no support, and indeed condemns it." Thus may the doubter assure himself, and see in the ethics of the earlier religion only the "guesses at truth"—the anticipations, as it were, of the Gospel of Him who has at no age of the world left himself without a witness.

G. M. A.

THE GREAT SIBERIAN RAILWAY

IN May, 1705, Peter the Great founded his new capital, thereby breaking out, through the channel of the Neva, "a window into Europe." In the same month, in 1891, the present Emperor, Nicholas II., then Czarewitch, cut the first sod of the greatest of Russia's engineering undertakings, the Trans-Siberian Railway, at Vladivostok, the "Golden Gate" of the East. If official calculations hold good, the vast work will be complete from end to end in the course of the summer of 1905, and the traveller will then be able to journey by rail in a fortnight from the shores of the Baltic to those of the Gulf of Tartary.

Russians believe in auspicious anniversaries; and there will probably be an effort, observes a writer in "Chambers's Journal," to whose pen we owe this article, to make the opening of the railway across Siberia coincide with the second centenary of the founding of St. Petersburg. The one event is the complement of the other. What Russia needed most two centuries ago was light. What she now chiefly strives after is space. If it was necessary in 1705 to open a front window into the Baltic, it will be felt not less urgent in 1905 to open a back door into the Pacific.

The ruling powers of Russia would perhaps have been glad, on several grounds, to have postponed for some time longer the task of taking up and pressing forward to completion a project that has been before their minds

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ever since the Crimean War, if not earlier. Economically and financially, Russia is not yet in the most advantageous position for tackling an enterprise so stupendous. Even if the estimates of cost are not exceeded, it will be for long a heavy drain on the resources of a country which has not much to spare for commercial adventures beyond the Urals. It will hamper and impede the progress, none too rapid, of internal reforms. But there were considerations that imperatively demanded that the work should be taken in hand without delay; and these were at least as much political and military, and even social, as connected with trading and industrial development.

China has been giving the world further proofs of her decrepitude and helplessness. The two great Western Powers — Great Britain and France — have planted themselves firmly upon her southern border, and are striving, by the opening of new land and water routes, to obtain a commercial command of her rich back provinces that some day may take the form of territorial appropriation. Germany is in the offing, eagerly watching for an opportunity of stepping in and claiming a share in the "partition of China." Above all, there has been the phenomenal rise of the Empire of Japan to the position of a great naval and trading power in the Pacific. Her recent easy triumph, by land and sea, over her bulky and inert neighbor, was the final demonstration of the first-class importance of Japan as a factor in Eastern politics; it proved, moreover, that Japanese policy has before it a settled and resolute purpose, and behind it the impelling force of a united and patriotic national feeling.

While such movements were going forward, Russia could not afford to remain quiescent. She, too, must open her trade routes, and establish herself firmly along the Chinese borderlands and on the shores of the Pacific — if possible on waters unobstructed by ice all the year round — if she was to have a hand in the game in which she means to play the trump card. She must make her "contiguity to China" a real and effectual fact, and not a mere geographical expression. She must be ready and able to put down her foot and stretch forth her hands when the day comes for the dividing of the spoil. This may in part be done by the opening and improvement of sea and river routes. But obviously the one strong and indispensable band for fastening the basin of the Amur to that of the Volga is the "link of steel" of a Trans-Siberian Railway.

Other reasons, not less weighty, demanded that the work should go forward in right earnest. Enormous as is the area of European Russia, the country is beginning to be found too narrow for a growing population already numbering over a hundred millions of souls, who are for the most part directly dependent on the produce of the soil. In many provinces there is even now a congested rural population, with the natural consequences of increasing pauperism, and discontent, and recurring famines.

The settlement of Siberia, therefore, is thrust upon her as a national necessity as well as a national good. Hitherto, during the three centuries she has more or less held possession, she has used Siberia as the lumber-room — nay, as the "cesspool" — of the Empire. The country is in many parts prodigiously fertile, and abounds in forest and mineral wealth. Important towns, the centres of agricultural, mining, and manufacturing industry, have sprung up on the banks of the great Siberian rivers and at their roots among the hills. What these cities — Irkutsk, Krasnoyarsk, and the rest — chiefly suffer from is their isolation, the vast distances, traversed only by sledge or lumbering *tarantass*, that separate them from each other and from the great centres of European civilization and trade. Emigration has for many years been running with a quickened current across the Urals, which look more of a barrier on the maps than they are in nature. Colonization of the rich farming, stock-raising, and metalliferous regions of Siberia has begun in earnest. It needed but the opening of a railway to make the stream a flood.

The scheme of laying a line of railway from the Urals to the Chinese frontier and the Pacific had long been maturing in the minds of the rulers of Russia. But, in the end, the decision in the crucial questions of route, point of departure, and terminus, and plan and time of construction had to be taken with some degree of precipitancy. When the problem was finally settled by the Special Commission of 1890, three routes

came into competition. One was a modification of a plan chosen fifteen years before, by which the Ural Mines Railway would have been connected with Nijni-Novgorod and extended from Tiumen towards the east. Another was a prolongation of the Orenburg Railway across the waterless and almost uninhabited steppes to the East, to the great Barnaul mining district and the skirts of the Altai chain. The route selected was a middle way. It is a continuation eastward of the line passing through Samara, Ufa, and Zlatoust, to Miass and Cheliabinsk within the borders of Siberia.

Its merits and demerits compared with the competing routes need not now be discussed. Among its advantages is the fact that it passes through the fertile and relatively well-peopled "Tchernozem" zone of the province of Tobolsk, avoiding alike the great marshes and forests and wide rivers of the north, and the arid and desert steppes to the south. It will feed itself, and feed the country behind and ahead, as it advances. In point of distance there is not much to choose between the three routes, but what advantage there is, is in favor of that adopted. It has further to be had in mind that the other two are postponed only, not abandoned; that the destined tracks converge on each other and meet at Nijni Udinsk, fully a third on the way across Siberia; and that already the Ural Mines Railway is being coupled to the Trans-Siberian by a connecting line from Ekaterinburg to Cheliabinsk.

This latter town is taken as the starting-point of the Great Siberian Railway, and it must be remembered that on reaching it the traveller, say from Calais, will have already made a journey of well-nigh 3,000 miles over land. Beyond it, the line, as the route is at present laid down, traverses a distance of 7,083 versts, or, including branch lines, 7,112 versts, roughly 4,800 miles, to Vladivostok.

The Ussuri or extreme eastern section of the railway, the construction of which, as we know from a statement prepared for the Chicago Exhibition by the Russian Department of Trade and Manufactures, occupied the "first rank" in the consideration of the government, is likely to fall into the last. The design was to make it the connecting link between the Amur basin and Vladivostok—the beginning towards the east of the great chain of overland communication. But if the new plan be adopted, by which the "Chinese Eastern Railway" will start from a point on the Trans-Baikal section of the original line, and be carried across Manchuria for a distance of nearly thirteen hundred miles, mostly on Chinese territory, to Nikolsk, near Lake Khanko, some seventy miles from Vladivostok, the line of the Lower Amur will lose its importance, and be superseded by a route which will be three or four hundred miles shorter, besides passing through a warmer, more fertile, and more populous region. The ultimate terminus of the line is reported to be, not the intermittently open harbor of Vladivostok, but Newchang or Port Arthur on the Gulf of Pechili. Then, again, should the more ambitious scheme that aims at joining the Siberian line with Pekin and the Yellow Sea come into existence, both the longer and the shorter routes which have the "bay of the Golden horn" as their terminus would sink to mere feeders of the main line of overland trade and travel to the east.

In the meantime, the Manchurian lines are as yet only projects, while the Ussuri section is a partly completed work. It was begun, as we have seen, in the early summer of 1891; and, according to the official calculations, the first half of it, to Gravsk, was to have been completed in 1894, and the remaining portion, to Khabarovka on the Amur, in the course of last year. But many unexpected difficulties were met with that have tended to delay progress; and M. de Windt, who passed over the completed part of the line in 1895, does not give a very flattering account of its condition, working, and immediate prospects.

Quite a different report can be made concerning the western section of the Trans-Siberian line, begun at the same time. It is already an effective part of the Russian railway system, and is fulfilling an important function in the distribution of products and population between Europe and Asia. Of it also we have a description from the pen of an eye-witness of its condition and progress — Mr. J. Y. Simpson, who, in a paper in "Blackwood," relates what he observed and experienced on a journey half-way

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across Siberia in the early summer of last year. A substantial and well-engineered road was found to extend to the Obi River 1,325 versts from Cheliabinsk. Some time will probably elapse before the bridge across the broad and turbid Obi is completed, but beyond this gap the line had in May last been carried forward in a rough state through a hilly and forest region as far as the important town of Krasnoyarsk, on the Yenisei, over 2,000 versts from Cheliabinsk, or two-sevenths of the whole way across Siberia. An enormous army of laborers, free and convict — Mr. Simpson says 62,000 in all — are employed on the line. No wonder, then, that in spite of the extraordinary primitive appliances employed in road-building, embanking, and pile-driving, rapid progress is being made with the railway. On his outward journey to Irkutsk, this traveller had to drive beyond Krasnoyarsk. On his return, a few weeks later, he was able to join a special waggon 103 versts * east of that place. The distance over the roughly laid section, between the Obi to Krasnoyarsk, took four days going out, and only thirty-six hours coming back.

In this region, then, except when arrested by the imperious hand of the Siberian winter, the railway is advancing almost visibly. The most western section of the railway, that from Cheliabinsk to the Obi, has been completed within the appointed time, and, what is perhaps more remarkable, within the estimated cost of forty-seven millions of roubles.† But it has to be remembered that this is at once the most accessible, the most easily engineered, and, economically, the most profitable part, of the line. As, says the Russian official authority quoted, it 'runs through a fertile zone of black earth, where climatic conditions are favorable to the cultivation of cereals, especially within the borders of the Ishimsk and Barabinsk steppes,' where gradients are easy, and 'during the whole length, as far as the Obi, there are hardly any obstacles to interfere with the laying down of the line,' beyond the crossing of the large rivers Tobol, Ishim, and Irtish.

Beyond the Obi, and on to Irkutsk, a distance of 1,748 versts, the face of the country gradually changes; and the engineering problem becomes progressively more difficult to deal with. The plain country is left for the *taiga*, or forest zone, a region of hills and of pine-woods; and the gradients become more steep as one advances eastward and rises to a higher level. For the same reason, climatic conditions do not improve, notwithstanding that, after leaving the Obi, the line takes a more southerly set, and moves gradually down from the fifty-fifth to the fifty-third degree of latitude. Speaking of the topographical and technical features of this first section of the Central Siberian division of the road, and more particularly of the 1,200 versts between Atchinsk and Irkutsk, the Russian official report remarks that the line has to cross two large rivers, the Chulym and the Yenisei, with their numerous tributaries; 'most of the Siberian streams in this part of the country run from north to south, whilst the general direction of the railway is from west to east, and therefore the line must intersect the whole of the spot-summit levels of these rivers, only excepting the valleys of some small streams which flow from east to west.' These levels, composed of spurs of the Altai and its subsidiary chains, 'are very high, and so narrow that there is no possibility of diminishing the steepness of the incline;' and many sharp curves and heavy earthworks will be required.

These difficulties are, however, but child's play compared with those that will have to be faced when, leaving the capital of Siberia behind, the line proceeds to make a circuit round the southern end of Lake Baikal and to cross, at its summit level of 3,685 feet, the great Yablonovai range into the basin of the Amur. For a distance of fifty-four miles the line follows the margin of the great inland sea, which is here enclosed by rocky walls. Cutting and tunnelling on a formidable scale, through hard granite, gneiss, and sandstone, will be rendered necessary; and the mountain floods and snowstorms of this moist region entail elaborate and costly precautions. This section will probably be one of the last to be completed; and in anticipation of the delay, the Government proposed to place on the lake a steamer of four thousand

* The verst (=500 Sajènes — the Sajène is 7 English feet), is equivalent to 3,500 feet, or two-thirds of a statute mile.

† The rouble is worth about 78c.; 6.40 roubles are taken as equal to $5. — *Ed. S. C.*

tons, which will transport the train bodily to the station of Mysovsk and will be provided with apparatus for breaking a way through the ice.

But even after leaving Baikal, the obstacles to be surmounted are hardly less serious. The climate becomes drier; but it also becomes more rigorous. In ascending to the summit-crossing of the Yablonovai Mountains, and still more in descending the Shilka and Selenga to their parent stream, the Amur, the railway is at length able to follow the natural line of the valleys, instead of crossing them at right angles. But an immense amount of embanking will be requisite on this Trans-Baikal section; and the cost and labor of this will be increased incalculably from the fact that the subsoil, in a region where even in summer the mean temperature is little if at all above freezing-point, is permanently frozen at a short distance below the surface. With each remove eastward, also, the population grows sparser; a rule that may be said to hold generally good for the railway throughout its length. In compensation, it is stated that in the crossing of the Yablonovai important deposits of coal have been found, while at Stretinsk, on the Shilka, the line will be within easy reach of the rich gold and silver mines of the Nerchinsk district, so famous, or infamous, in the annals of Siberian exile and crime.

Stretinsk is about 1,300 versts from Irkutsk, and the remaining 2,000 versts of the line, to Khabarovka, where the Amur section joins that of the Ussuri, 'has not,' as we learn from the official statement, 'been thoroughly investigated in detail, only some slight reconnoitering having been done when the estimates of cost were drawn. This has, however, been enough to show that the construction of the railway will be rendered difficult' by the completely desert nature of the country, covered with dense virgin forests, the silence of which has not been broken by the voice of man,' and the long distance over which workmen and ready-made railway appliances will have to be conveyed. The very question of the route may almost be said to be still in abeyance.

Thus no safe inference as to the total expense, or even as to the date of completion of the railway, can be drawn from the experience of laying the more western and easier sections. Doubtless all expedition will be used in pushing on the line to Irkutsk, which may be reached within the time set — namely, in 1900. In 1899 the Trans-Baikal and Amur sections will be begun, and work on the Baikal circuit section will not be commenced until the following year. The estimate that the whole line will be in working order by the year 1905 is hardly likely to be realized. Still less probable is it that the total cost of the Great Siberian Railway will fall within the sum of 350,210,482 roubles, or, taking the rouble at its nominal value, thirty-five millions sterling, at which it was originally set down. It will be strange if, all things reckoned, the cost to the Government of Russia falls much, or any, short of fifty millions sterling.

Besides this initial outlay, the working of it is certain to entail for many years a burden on the Russian treasury. The opening of the line for through traffic, it has been seen, will be the affair of the early years of the next century. But the industrial and agricultural development of Siberia, and of the countries bordering on the Pacific, on a scale large enough to make this vast enterprise profitable, must be postponed to a date considerably more remote; and not even in the conveyance of such high-priced goods as tea and silk is the overland route likely to compete successfully under present conditions with the sea route in the markets of Western Europe.

On the other hand, the political, the social, and the economical influences of the Great Siberian Railway begin already to be felt. Every year they will become more marked. One problem of extraordinary interest is being worked out along the line. Convict labor, under a gang system, is being applied to the building of the railway. In the western and central sections at least it is said to be attended with excellent results. For prisoners, eight months of railway labor reckons as one year's imprisonment, and exiles have their terms shortened by counting one year as two. They are working out their own salvation.

A yet more tremendous question, for Russia and for other countries, is that of the free colonization of Siberia. This has at length begun in earnest. The

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running eastward of the line into the fertile plains of the Irtish and the Obi has been like cutting a gap in a dam. A rush of emigrants from the crowded communes of Great and Little Russia has followed, and every year it has grown in volume. The temptations held out by the Government to the peasants to settle in the provinces of Tobolsk and Tomsk — cheap railway fares and a free allotment of forty-three acres of Crown land — do not seem extravagant, considering the remoteness of the scene and the severity of the winter climate. But they have been sufficient to set a great human tide flowing eastward. In the month of May last year alone 100,000 of these new settlers and their families emigrated into Siberia by rail. The Government had mismanaged shockingly the arrangements for their reception. Mr. Simpson found wretched companies of them crowded about the little stations on the route, unhoused, uncared for, dying of typhus and other epidemics. Only ignorant and needy peasant folk were in the rush. The official idea of granting land privileges to 'Russian nobles and individuals in the Government service,' as the means of introducing a 'cultured and civilizing influence into the country,' does not seem yet to have taken effect. Perhaps the grantees are content to hold their privileges as absentees.

What will come of this peopling of the Great North-East — this stocking of a vast and empty, but fertile, space of the earth with the elements of future trade and wealth indeed, but also of crime, discontent, and disorder — will be the story of the beginning of next century, or more probably of its middle or end.

JOHN GEDDIE.

ANOTHER LITERARY AMERICAN AMBASSADOR:

COLONEL JOHN HAY'S POEMS AND ESSAYS*

THE world knows Colonel John Hay best by his "Pike County Ballads." Few things, indeed, are more remarkable in the history of our modern literature than the way in which this tiny handful of poems took the English-speaking world by storm. They came, they saw, they overcame,—after the manner of all true poetry which touches the most human side of men and women. Many great poems, especially if they appeal solely or chiefly to the imaginative side of the mind, or if they rely solely upon awakening the emotions which respond to the sense of beauty, or, again, if they are idyllic or elegiac in their nature, often have a hard fight before they win the world's dull ear. When, however, poems appeal simply and directly to the heroic side of man, and are at the same time alive with the true essence of poetry, and possess also the spirit of humor, they are almost certain to achieve a quick success. Of course, poems possessed of these qualities are rare, but when they exist they are invincible. But the "Pike County Ballads" do possess these qualities, and therefore "Jim Bludso," "the man who died for men," and "Little Breeches," are known wherever the English language is spoken. The poem called "Banty Tim" is for some reason less well known, though in our opinion it is both one of the most humorous and the most heroic of Colonel Hay's Ballads. We need not, therefore, deny ourselves the pleasure of quotation. The lines describe how Sergeant Tilmon Joy, a Northern veteran, explained to the White Man's Committee of Spunky Point, Illinois, that he was not going to have his negro friend, Tim, driven out of the village:—

"Why, blame your hearts, just hear me!
You know that ungodly day
When our left struck Vicksburg Heights, how ripped
And torn and tattered we lay.
When the rest retreated I stayed behind,
Fur reasons sufficient to me,—
With a rib caved in, and a leg on a strike,
I sprawled on that cursed glacee.

Lord! how the hot sun went for us,
And br'iled and blistered and burned!
How the Rebel bullets whizzed round us
When a cuss in his death-grip turned!
Till along toward dusk I seen a thing
I couldn't believe for a spell:
That nigger — that Tim — was a crawlin' to me
Through that fire-proof, gilt-edged hell!

* (1) Poems; (2) Castilian Days. By John Hay [Ambassador of the United States to the Court of St. James], London: John Lane; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. From a critique in the London "Spectator," Aug. 28, 1897.

The Rebels seen him as quick as me,
And the bullets buzzed like bees;
But he jumped for me, and shouldered me,
Though a shot brought him once to his knees;
But he staggered up, and packed me off,
With a dozen stumbles and falls,
Till safe in our lines he drapped us both,
His black hide riddled with balls.

So, my gentle gazelles, thar's my answer,
And here stays Banty Tim:
He trumped death's ace for me that day,
And I'm not goin' back on him!
You may rezoloot till the cows come home,
But ef one of you tetches the boy,
He'll wrastle his hash to-night in hell,
Or my name's not Tilmon Joy!"

That is a poem which goes straight to the heart. The sacred comradeship of the battlefield comes to us winged with the sense of humor. The phrase, "you may rezoloot [resolute, *i. e.*, pass resolutions] till the cows come home," is alone enough to make the poem a memorable one. It puts in a sentence that Anglo-Saxon scorn for the oppressions of the lawless mob, or the lawless majority, "as of the lawless crown," which is so sound a barrier against the excesses of a too triumphant democracy. It is the plain man's very unmistakable way of saying, "The people may be my governor, but not my tyrant."

From a purely literary point of view the "Pike County Ballads" are extremely interesting. They are the seed from which many flowers have sprung. Bret Harte, following Lowell, used the dialect poem, and with notable success, but not for heroic themes. "The Heathen Chinee" is pure comedy. Colonel Hay was almost the first poet of modern times to use it with other than a humorous intent. Since then the new plant has grown and prospered greatly. "Gunga Din" and many another notable barrack-room ballad has followed Tilmon Joy's account of the struggle at Vicksburg. We do not, of course, mean that Mr. Kipling has in any sense been an imitator, but the mixture of the heroic and the humorous in dialect verse was first successfully achieved by Colonel John Hay. He first showed the poets what a great opportunity lay open to them.

If we say anything more about Colonel Hay's poems we shall have no room to speak of *Castilian Days*, and of *Castilian Days* we must briefly speak. Suffice it to say that the non-dialect poems are full of charm and interest, and written with spirit as well as accomplishment. *Castilian Days* is a truly delightful volume of essays dealing with Spain and the Spaniards. The book has a quality of humor which it is difficult to analyze or describe, but which is quite delightful. There is no straining after the comic, no elaborate attempt to be funny or sly or clever, but through the book runs a sort of ripple of shrewd, and yet good-tempered, criticism of things Spanish which is most pleasant. There is a good deal which reminds us of the best French writing in these touch-and-go pictures of Spain, especially in their gaiety and lightness of treatment. But beyond this there is a purely English quality, a quality which has many subdivisions, but which, not being an analytical race, we are content to class generally as humor. Here is an exquisitely humorous passage from "The Influence of Tradition in Spanish Life:"—

"There is a curious little comedy played by the family of Medina Celi at every new coronation of a king of Spain. The Duke claims to be the rightful heir to the throne. He is descended from Prince Ferdinand, who, dying before his father, Don Alonso X., left his babies exposed to the cruel kindness of their uncle Sancho, who, to save them the troubles of the throne, assumed it himself and transmitted it to his children,—all this some half-dozen centuries ago. At every coronation the Duke formally protests; an athletic and sinister-looking court headsman comes down to his palace in the Carrera San Geronimo, and by threats of immediate decapitation induces the Duke to sign a paper abdicating his rights to the throne of all the Spains. The Duke eats the Bourbon leek with inward profanity, and feels that he has done a most clever and proper thing. This performance is apparently his only object and mission in life. This one sacrifice to tradition is what he is born for. The most important part of a Spaniard's signature is the *rubrica*, or flourish, with which it closes. The monarch's hand is set to public acts exclusively by this *parafe*. This evidently dates from the time when none but priests could write. In Madrid the mule-teams are driven tandem through the wide streets, because this was necessary in the ages when the streets were narrow. There is even a show of argument sometimes to justify an adherence to things as they are. About a century ago there was an effort made by people who had lived abroad, and so become conscious of the possession of noses, to have the streets of Madrid cleaned. The proposition was at first received with a pathetic contempt, but when the innovators persevered they met the earnest and successful opposition of all classes. The Castilian *savans* gravely reported that the air of Madrid, which blew down from the snowy Guadarramas, was so thin and piercing that it absolutely needed the gentle corrective of the ordure-heaps to make it fit for human lungs."

How the contents of the last passage would have delighted Swift. We might go on quoting from these delightful essays things not only witty and charming, but also things which show a most remarkable insight into the Spanish character. Here is an account of the Spanish watchman:—

"I lived in a pleasant house on the Prado, with a minute garden in front, and an iron gate and railing. This gate was shut and locked by the night-watchman of the quarter at midnight, — so conscientiously that he usually had everything snug by half past eleven. As the same man had charge of a dozen or more houses, it was scarcely reasonable to expect him to be always at your own gate when you arrived. But by a singular fatality I think no man ever found him in sight at any hour. He is always opening some other gate or shutting some other door, or settling the affairs of the nation with a friend in the next block, or carrying on a chronic courtship at the lattice of some olive-cheeked soubrette around the corner. Be that as it may, no one ever found him on hand; and there is nothing to do but to sit down on the curbstone and lift up your voice and shriek for him until he comes. The Sereno opens your gate and the door of your house. When you come to your own floor you must ring, and your servant takes a careful survey of you through a latticed peep-hole before he will let you in. You may positively forbid this every day in the year but the force of habit is too strong in the Spanish mind to suffer amendment."

With so much of notice we must leave Colonel Hay's delightful book. If Colonel Hay makes his despatches one-tenth as bright and amusing as his books, the officials of the State Department in Washington will never be able to complain that their work is dull.

PATRIOTISM VERSUS JINGOISM

AT the recent meeting, at Toronto, of the British Science Association, the Right Hon. James Bryce, Regius Professor of Civil Law at Oxford and author of the comprehensive work on the "American Commonwealth," delivered an address on Jingoism and the relations between Britain and the United States, part of which is worthy of preservation. Prof. Bryce, it will be remembered, was a member of Mr. Gladstone's last government, and held the post of President of the Board of Trade in Lord Rosebery's cabinet. In his address, the distinguished gentleman referred to the recent Victorian Jubilee celebration, and disclaimed the notion that there was in it anything defiant or aggressive. The dominant note, as he said, was the passionate interest felt in the occasion by England and her kin in foreign lands and colonies. Especially it can be said that there was not the slightest feeling of hostility toward other countries — least of all was there any towards the great people who live on the southern side of the Great Lakes.

"I will venture to say, in the presence of our American friends," continued Prof. Bryce, "that there is only one feeling in Britain towards the United States — a feeling of friendship and a hope that that friendship may always continue, not only between Britain and the United States, but also between the United States and Canada, as being communities whose truest and best interests are indissolubly interwoven with one another. I know that these pacific sentiments are sometimes disturbed. There are in all countries persons whom we in England call by the name of jingoes. There are jingoes in England, and there are jingoes in the United States. Well, then, what is jingoism? It is a travesty of patriotism which has gone on fermenting until it has become sour. It bears the same relation to true patriotism that vinegar bears to wine. These jingoes in all countries are fond of making mischief. Some of them do it in mere recklessness of heart. Some of them, I am afraid, do it from less creditable motives, in the belief that they can make some petty political capital out of it. But beyond all these noisy, querulous and quarrelsome voices there stands in Great Britain — there stands, I am no less sure, in the United States also — the great, solid, sensible mass of the nation which desires peace and tranquillity, which desires to attend to its business and desires not to have it disturbed or shaken by rumors of wars; the great mass which desires to fear God and honor the Sovereign, whether the Sovereign be called a Queen or President. And I trust that in all three countries this great solid and weighty mass of responsible national opinion will prevent those noisy voices from ever provoking real danger between these kindred peoples."

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THE STORY OF HUMAN PROGRESS:

THE LIBERAL MOVEMENT OF OUR TIMES

MANY of those born in the last quarter of the nineteenth century cannot realize the revolution in respect to freedom of opinion that has taken place in the Christian world during the last fifty years. But there are men and women now living who recall the intolerance and sectarianism that prevailed only a generation or two ago. Liberty of conscience and worship in the full sense of the term is enjoyed to-day almost universally in English-speaking countries, but the privilege is of recent date. Only within a few years have men noted "the growth of a large and tolerant temper in dealing with differences of opinion."

Slow growth of Tolerance

It is hard for one not familiar with history to understand the reasons for the slow evolution of the liberal and catholic spirit. Occasionally some dreamer speculates on the subject and asks why the modern era could not have dawned several hundred years before the fifteenth century, or why the seeds sown by Wycliffe and Savonarola were so slow in taking root, blossoming and bearing fruit. There is a striking passage in Mark Pattison's "Memoirs," p. 100, which expresses the disappointment of a reflecting man because of the fitful, interrupted progress of freedom and enlightenment.

> About 1500 it seemed as if Europe was about to cast off at one effort the slough of feudal barbarism, and to step at once into the fair inheritance of the wisdom and culture of the ancient world. The Church led the van, and smiled on free inquiry and the new learning. About the third decennium of the century the resistance of the obscurantists was organized, the Catholic reaction set in, and nascent humanism was submerged beneath the rising tide of theological passion and the fatal and fruitless controversies of Lutheran, Calvinist, and Catholic, to the rival cries of the Bible and the Church. The "*sacrificio d'intelletto*" of Loyola took the place of the free and rationalizing spirit with which Erasmus had looked out upon the world of men.

According to Dean Stanley, the author of the motto so often attributed to Augustine, *In necessariis unitas, in dubiis libertas, in omnibus caritas*, * was Rupertius Meldenius, "an obscure German divine of the 17th century." Like-minded was Erasmus, who wrote: "The sum of religion is peace, which can only be when definitions are as few as possible, and opinion is left free on many subjects." Such sentiments were held by other liberal-minded men of those times, but it required two or three centuries more for them to be translated into general practice.

Freedom of the Press won

The Reformation gave a mighty impetus to the emancipation of thought in the sixteenth century. Much was gained, notwithstanding the reaction. The battle went on for the freedom of the press, for which John Milton pleaded so eloquently. This was finally won. In 1833, Tennyson could proudly refer to England as the home of free speech:

> The land, where girt with friends or foes
> A man may speak the thing he will.

Sectarian disabilities removed

This was indeed a precious privilege. But the spirit of religious persecution died hard. The year 1829 witnessed a long step forward in the breaking down of the barriers which had hedged about Roman Catholics, but the disabilities of the Jews and the Nonconformists still remained. The curse of fanaticism lingered until the new *régime* of the Victorian reign, which gradually effected the removal of most of the inequalities and grievances complained of by Dissenters and non-churchmen.†

*Transl.: In essential matters, unity; in doubtful, liberty; in all, charity. The motto is sometimes also credited to Melanchthon.—Ed.

†The Tithe-Commutation and Marriage acts were passed in 1836. The disabilities of the Jews were removed in 1846 and 1858. Compulsory church-rates were abolished in 1868. The Irish Church was disestablished in 1869. Since 1871 scholastic degrees and honors have been open to all at Oxford and Cambridge, and clerical fellowships since 1877. The burial-service rules were relaxed in 1880. Now the disestablishment of the Church of Wales is agitated. Our own country was not much in advance of England in the matter of toleration. In New England, only a few decades ago, outsiders were taxed to support the Congregational clergy. Vermont granted religious liberty in 1807; Connecticut in 1818, and Massachusetts in 1833. In Virginia a large measure of religious freedom had been enjoyed long before this, through the efforts of Patrick Henry and Thomas Jefferson.

Amid all the changes and improvements that marked the epoch of reform following the Napoleonic wars, the cause of religious liberty and equality lagged behind. Frederick von Raumer, professor of history in the University of Berlin, while travelling in Great Britain in 1835, contrasted the different condition of things in Germany and in England. "In Germany," he says, "the essence of Christianity is sought and found in that in which all parties agree." In England it consisted in doctrinal differences.

The Presbyterian sees his Christianity in that by which he is distinguished from the Episcopalian; the Episcopalian in that which distinguishes him from the Dissenter; the Catholic in his hostility to all parties. All these are but positions and views of self-love, presumption, dissension, and hatred.*

So thought this intelligent and fair-minded foreigner, who quotes from a pamphlet against Dissenters by Professor Sewell, of Oxford, this bigoted utterance:

I wholly and utterly deny the right of liberty of conscience: I deny the right of any sect to deviate even one atom from the rule which I consider as true Christianity.

And yet at this same Oxford was the knot of men called the Oriel School, who had in them the leaven of liberalism. There are evidences of the growing sentiment of tolerance which eventually led to the abolition of the test of subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles as a requirement for admission to the old universities. Charles Astor Bristed, who was at Cambridge in the early forties, says there was "infinitely less of liberality of sentiment at Oxford than at Cambridge." Yet the learned Dr. Whewell, of Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1834 was engaged in a controversy with Bishop Thirlwall over the admission of Dissenters to Cambridge. A few years later they were indeed admitted, but not on the same footing with Episcopalians. Says C. A. Fyffe, of English universities: "There was less of ecclesiastical prejudice and intolerance than at Oxford, though enough to cause some unpleasantness to a Nonconformist student." Justin McCarthy puts the case rather mildly when he credits the English with being "somewhat narrow and unsympathetic in their Protestantism; that their national tendency is to believe in the existence of nothing really good outside the limits of Protestantism."

The Polemical Period

The period beginning with the Tractarian movement in 1833 has been called by an Anglican historian, "The Polemical Period." It was a time of ecclesiastical friction and sectarian discord. A vast amount of energy was wasted by denominational leaders and their followers in discussion and turmoil. They indulged in acrimonious language, and caused much hard feeling. The world had to wait a few decades more for the peaceful toleration of diversity in views and practices. Churches stood in need of liberation, not only from their lethargy and self-sufficiency, but from their mutual jealousies. They were not awake to the opportunities and requirements of the hour. The hostility of the various sects prevented concerted action and blocked the wheels of progress and philanthropy.

Heretics were no longer imprisoned and burned at the stake, but the age of martyrs was not yet passed. "The persecuting temper" was by no means yet extinct in the clergy of the English Church and of other religious bodies. Says Dean Farrar: "During many years Dr. Pusey passed through hurricanes of abuse." The son and biographer of Frederick Denison Maurice tells of "the hailstorm of calumny with which at this time [1851] my father and his friends were assailed."

The Persecuting temper in the Clergy

It was said of Dean Stanley that "he lived in an atmosphere of contention which thickened rather than dispersed in the course of years." Vials of wrath and hatred were poured by "an unlearned and prejudiced clergy" upon the head of Bishop Colenso for presuming to question the Mosaic authorship of the earlier books of the Bible. A long and bitter warfare was waged against him by men of the Conservative party in the Established Church. His biographer thus writes of the stormy occurrences of the sixties:

The effect of the earlier parts of the Bishop's work on the Pentateuch in this country was to open wide the flood-gates of theological strife and animosity. In almost every quarter in which his criticisms were rejected, they were rejected with a vehemence which showed that

*"England in 1835," vol. iii, from letter lxiv.

the feeling of resentment had been deeply stirred. In many quarters they were denounced with a bitterness and ferocity which revealed how far the iron had entered into their soul.*

On the one side were the Liberals, having the modern spirit in religious thought, emphasizing the right of individual judgment, laying less stress on the authority of church and scripture, making less of tradition and the sacerdotal side of Christianity, using reason and welcoming spiritual illumination in the search for truth, expansive, progressive, less inclined to dogmatism. Against them were arrayed the forces of the Conservatives, whose delight is in the past, who dwell much on priestly authority and prerogative, who make much of the sacraments and ritual of the old Church, insisting on the historic polity and the episcopate based on apostolical succession, condemning reason, dreading change and innovation, suspicious of what appears to be a departure from the old ways.

There was need of more liberty of utterance for theologians and biblical students. Through the labors of Coleridge, Carlyle, and others, the critical philosophy of Germany was imported into Great Britain, and, through the efforts of Arnold, Milman, and others, a more rigid method of historical research was coming into vogue. On the Continent a considerable margin of liberty was allowed to investigators, and in time the questioning mood and frame of mind was developed in England, whose scholars began to brave the opposition of Conservatives to every light-bearer who breaks away from the bondage of the past.

The battle over Evolution

There was need, too, of greater freedom for scientists and secularists, whose rights as thinkers were curtailed. Naturalists were hampered in their investigations because the conclusions of science conflicted with certain old-fashioned notions of theology. Especially were the ideas of Evolutionists greeted with contempt and derision by their theological opponents, who thought nothing of slurring and distorting the facts and evidences sustaining Darwinism. Men whose only creed was reason were pursued with relentless malignity. Hard things were said of them. They suffered for opinion's sake. They were ostracized for holding the anti-theistic position. They were looked upon with horror for believing the Deity to be impersonal or supra-personal. They were branded with the terrible epithet of 'infidel' or 'atheist.' Their usefulness in life was seriously impaired because of this unreasonable prejudice and opposition. It was time for this injustice to cease. In any case, sneers and jeers were obviously out of place. The antagonism to Mill and Bradlaugh was an anachronism.

The progress of science meant the decadence of ecclesiasticism, the scientific temper being essentially secular. The new spirit of the age ran counter to narrowness and bigotry, and gradually the development of theology went on in spite of the clamor raised in the ranks of extreme Calvinists and Anglicans. Vestiges still remain of the old polemic fierceness among those who should be brethren. Protestantism is not yet rid of its cant and exclusiveness, but during the last two or three decades it has taken some giant strides in the direction of religious liberty. Now, objection is seldom made to the legitimate exercise of "the free and rationalizing spirit with which Erasmus looked out upon the world of men."

The dogmatic mood vicious

The dogmatic mood is now seen to be radically vicious. Among the many things that science has taught us, one is to know and realize that our ignorance is fathomless. This of itself is conducive to tolerance. Where there is so much of uncertainty, positive affirmation, unqualified assertion, on the part of freethinker or of churchman, should be indulged in sparingly. It is better not to give full rein to the dictatorial habit, even when one feels most certain as to the soundness of his position. If true, time will demonstrate its correctness. Time, too, has a way of sifting out the worthless and unimportant. No church or society has ever enjoyed a monopoly of the truth. History shows that heat has too often been mistaken for light. Here, it is plain, as the poet says, "gentle words are always gain." The vindictive temper is not only un-Christian but unwise, for persecution serves to keep error alive. The petulant, querulous spirit defeats its own ends. Ani-

*Cox, "Life of Bishop Colenso," vol. I, p. 225.

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mosities, especially over trivial matters, are clearly inconsistent with the teachings of the Gospel. Impatience is not numbered among the graces and virtues of the new dispensation. Let there be a fair field for all well-meaning persons who are trying to do good in the world, whether they be Protestants, Catholics, or secularists. Such is the attitude of the genuine Liberal.

The old theology Monarchical, the new Democratic

The gist of the difference between the old theology and the new may be stated in a few sentences. The theology of Augustine was imperialistic. In this he represented the genius of old Rome, as medieval theology was of the feudal type. Calvinism was of the same general character — imperialistic and feudal. It made God an absolute sovereign, and exalted justice at the expense of mercy. Modern theology has changed in keeping with the new spirit of the age. Its temper is not so harsh and inexorable as was that of the old. Deity is now thought of less as a king than as a father, to whom the obedience of love is rendered rather than the obedience of fear. While the ancient theocratic notion of God has not entirely disappeared, it has been to a considerable extent supplanted and superseded by the newer and more cheerful conception. The idea of a Christian republic or democracy is gaining ground. What smacks of royalty and ceremonialism is coming increasingly into disfavor. Latter-day Christianity is growing more and more simple and humane.

To no one man is due all the credit for the liberal movement of our times. Thousands have taken part in this revolution in the world of intellect and spirit. First and foremost should be named the English poets, who have been, generally speaking, lovers of freedom and friends of tolerance. Civilizers they may be called — Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, Burns, Byron, Shelley, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning. And their brotherbards on this side the sea — Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, and Holmes — wrought with them in all that makes for the spiritual development of the race. Matthew Arnold, in his prose and verse, did something to foster friendly feeling among men of different beliefs and opinions. He was an apostle of "sweetness and light." Martineau and Emerson

The Liberal-minded Poets and Preachers

were two fearless soldiers in the conflict of dogma *versus* liberty. Channing and Theodore Parker were champions of liberalism. Maurice, Kingsley, Robertson, Stanley, Farrar, Phillips Brooks, and other Broad-church preachers, contributed their share towards the grand result, making for the non-sectarian temper and the open-minded search for truth. And there were liberal theologians in the orthodox ranks — Erskine, Campbell, McLeod, Tulloch, Bruce, and others in Great Britain; Beecher, Briggs, Northrop, Lyman Abbott, T. T. Munger, and others in the United States. Nor should the rationalists and scientists be forgotten, for Mill, Froude, Lecky, Tyndall, Huxley, Spencer, Romanes, and their fellow-workers have done much toward educating the English people in liberal principles. Much yet remains to be done, and the services of many more should be enlisted in the sacred cause of liberality and catholicity.

The mission of Liberalism

The mission of liberalism is not only to favor the anti-dogmatic tendency, but to lessen ecclesiastical asperity and to bring about closer and friendlier relations between clergy and laity. This does not mean to neglect the spiritual interests of man. It is possible to be reverent without being dogmatic, and religious without being fanatical. It is unfortunately true, as one has observed, that "the story of all sects is largely the story of combative religion." It is sincerely to be hoped that in the church annals of the future no pages will be written in blood and fire. One has said that "dogmas are losing their prestige." They certainly ought to, if they cannot maintain their integrity without resorting to physical force. It is not in accordance with the genius of modern republicanism to bolster them up with ecclesiastical props. The truth can stand on its own merits. The work that liberalism has yet to accomplish may be indicated in certain directions.

Freedom of Thought and Research demanded

1. More freedom is desirable for college presidents and for progressive teachers in higher institutions of learning, and in theological seminaries; also

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for clergymen and laymen who belong to the liberal wing or advanced guard of Evangelical churches. Escape from the thraldom of dogmatism is still attended with difficulties. We smile as we read of the conflicts that raged around the Oxford Tractarians, but it is with feelings of chagrin that we hear of the animosity of "Landmarkism" in our own day. In 1847, an English rector was refused an appointment because he denied baptismal regeneration, but in the last quarter of the nineteenth century many a professor has lost his chair, not because he lacked zeal for the truth, but because he failed to satisfy the unreasonable requirements of unprogressive old-timers. Long after the Wilson decision (1864), "which was considered the charter of liberty, by the progressive men of the Church of England," there were numerous church trials in our own country, productive of discussions and heartburnings and estrangements. Thus history repeats itself. Is it too much to hope that the time will come when heresy-hunters will profit by the experience of the past?

It will be an advantage to both scientists and theologians when their mutual mistrust shall have been overcome. Intellectual liberty is the price of progress. Without the privilege of unfettered research, knowledge and faith must both suffer. Let us learn to be critical and hospitable. Let us be continually acquiring new truth, and the truth will make us free. Thus a consistent belief is gained, and one-sided judgment avoided. Students should be encouraged "to reach by independent thought and investigation just and large views of things — conclusions which they can rationally accept and justify in the light of the grounds on which they rest." Originality is something to be welcomed, not crushed out and accused of evil intent. Well-meaning people, suspicious of they know not what, but what they fear to be unsoundness, send valuable allies into other camps, and do not realize the loss until too late.

Liberty of Conscience entitled to respect

2. Once the Church had things pretty much her own way, and the way of the unbeliever was hard. Now the tables have turned, and the intolerance of orthodoxy on the part of noisy sceptics and so-called Liberals is not to their credit. The liberty of the orthodox conscience is entitled to respect from sec ularists, and honest faith ought to have as much of a show as "honest doubt." Granted that it is the duty of churchmen to be alive to the needs of the hour —

> Watch what main-currents draw the years,
> Cut Prejudice against the grain —

nevertheless it remains true that their feelings are entitled to consideration. Their devotion to things "hallowed and endeared by traditional associations" is something not to be sneered at. Agnostics sometimes "look with warping glasses," and do not always have the virtue of consistency. The opportunity that they ask for themselves they should freely accord to others. The lesson of forbearance is a necessary one for all to learn. The constructive work of Christians is certainly as valuable to society as the destructive work of their antagonists. Admitting the benefits that freethinkers have done mankind, it is a fact that the negative is not so much needed as the positive. The world wants builders more than iconoclasts.

True Liberalism not Radicalism

True liberalism is to be distinguished from radicalism, which rejects the miraculous and the supernatural. True liberalism is neither intolerant nor iconoclastic. It does not consist in the imaginary independence known as freethought, which is still trammelled by the shackles of prejudice. It is to be regretted that some of the exponents of "liberalism" are so inconsistent as to go out of their way to castigate Methodists, Baptists, or Presbyterians. Those who profess to be Liberals should not indulge in flings and misrepresentations. One who has reached the "summits of thought" should be free from the irritable disposition which displays itself in bitter attacks on the adherents of orthodoxy. The Liberal should be large-minded enough to practice, himself, the charity that suffereth long and is kind. Self-glorification is as much out of place in the independent as in the conservative. Oftentimes the spirit of tolerance is more pronounced in the breast of an Evangelical believer than it is in the advanced thinker, the genuineness of whose boasted hospitality "to all forms of thought" is open to suspicion. The tolerant, because indif-

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ferent, attitude of the secularist is not the most admirable. "The wise indifference of the wise" is not careless indifference. True tolerance arises when well-grounded conviction is accompanied by the sense of justice. It regards the inviolability of conscience as of more importance than the spread of religion by other than gentle means.

The Common School a Liberalising agency

3. That democratic institution, the common school, is a great liberalizing agency. The growth of tolerance has been wonderfully favored by the mingling of children in the public schools. And the intimate association of students in colleges and other educational seats has had a tendency to lessen their inherited religious conservatism. The familiar intercourse of the classroom and the play-ground is apt to beget in them a large-minded indifference to deviations from their own form of faith. They come to the conclusion with the poet:

His can't be wrong whose life is in the right.

They learn to prize sincerity and honesty in their comrades, and to admire the real Christly character wherever found. The meeting of young men and women in literary and religious societies and in immense public gatherings has led them to overlook their doctrinal differences, or to deem them superficial and not fundamental. This is a bright feature of the Christian Endeavor movement.

Sectarian Rivalry declining

The prospect of the further extension of the feeling of fellowship in the various Evangelical Churches is one of the gratifying symptoms of growing liberalism. The religious world is not yet ready and ripe for the wiping out of denominational lines, but this need not and should not prevent a united effort on the part of Christians of all sects to save perishing men, to promote the interests of philanthropy and temperance and good government. Already this has been done to a considerable extent. Innumerable men and women, seeing the folly of sectarian rivalry, have banded together and developed the sense of comradeship between man and man, irrespective of denominational affiliations. They have felt the vitalizing touch of the new spirit of the age, and are zealous to uplift humanity. They can do this without asking permission of prelate or dignitary. They see that there is a harmony of interests among all the workers against the forces of evil, no matter under what flag they sail.

There is room for further cultivation of the spirit of brotherliness in the relations of church members with one another. A gradual transformation is now going on in Christian character in this respect. Unfailing politeness and fairness should characterize the Christian's deeds and words. Courtesy is a virtue that should never be forgotten in the heat of discussion. It is certainly well to avoid the bias that leads to misunderstandings, that tends toward injustice or friction. It is not a sign of magnanimity to retaliate. The disposition to get even is unlovely, whether exhibited by the Liberalist or the Calvinist. Gentleness and patience are still to be cultivated by church workers, and a gracious acquiescence in the will of the majority. It is the good of the cause that they should seek, not individual glory — working for the prosperity of Zion, not in strife or jealousy, but exhibiting something of the divine endurance and winsomeness of Christ.

The leaven of Liberalism in the Roman Church

4. The Church of Rome is generally looked upon as the impregnable stronghold of conservatism, but even this venerable institution is changing. It cannot entirely resist the reconstructive impulse of a transition era. The leaven of liberalism is at work modifying its polity, if not its body of doctrines. It is gradually but surely disintegrating the mass of papal intolerance, exclusiveness and arrogance. In England and America, the homes of the free press and free school, the current of thought is setting strongly against ecclesiasticism. The power of the Romish hierarchy is not what it used to be. The clergy have improved under the fire of hostile criticism from without. They feel the force of enlightened public opinion in an epoch of democratic rule. Their attitude toward Protestants is more respectful and tolerant. Among intelligent laymen, thanks to the public schools and other liberal influences, the old antipathy of Catholics and Protestants is

disappearing, notwithstanding the misguided efforts of some secret organizations to keep alive and intensify religious prejudice and enmity.

Emancipation from Ecclesiastical subjection

Americanism and Ultramontanism are at war. The republican movement is making headway in Europe, and will ultimately bring about a larger policy in the councils of Rome. Greater latitude for individual judgment must be allowed in the Roman Catholic body. Complete self-effacement and single-minded devotion to the Church lead to undesirable results. The *sacrificio d'intelletto* of Loyola should not be expected or required in a McGlynn or a Keane. The rationalistic trend of the age cannot be stayed. The principle of soul-freedom will sooner or later demand recognition at the court of Rome. Mental independence is worth more than absolute uniformity in faith and practice. The mission of Liberalism will not be accomplished until the sacred right of private opinion shall be universally admitted and maintained. This will never be an ideal world until that day shall dawn. Jesuitism must go. The liberal programme of the future will be satisfied with nothing less than the entire emancipation of the human mind from ecclesiastical subjection.

EUGENE PARSONS.

NEW PROBLEMS IN GEOGRAPHY

AT the recent meeting at Toronto of the British Science Association, an interesting paper was read on "New Problems in Geography," by Dr. Scott Keltie, Secretary of the Royal Geographical Society, editor of the well-known annual "The Statesman's Year," and president of the geographical section of the Association. Dr. Keltie devoted his address chiefly to indicating what, in his estimation, were some of the problems which geography had to attack in the future. There is a prevalent belief, said he, that geographers have nothing more to learn in Europe, that that old continent has been thoroughly explored. It is true that nearly every country in Europe has been, or is being, trigonometrically surveyed. Except some parts of the Balkan Peninsula and North of Russia, the topography of the Continent has been accurately mapped on scales and by methods sufficient at least for the purposes of the geographer. Yet there are districts in the Balkan Peninsula — for example, Albania — which are as vaguely known as Central Africa. But it is a delusion to think that because a country has been fully mapped the occupation of the geographer is gone. It is only when a region at large is adequately mapped that the work of geographical research begins.

The Waste-Places of Europe

But while there is an inexhaustible field in the future for geographical work in the direction I have indicated, there is no doubt that much still remains to be done in the way of exploring the unknown, or little known, regions of the globe. Let us briefly refer to the problems remaining to be solved in this direction. The most important desiderata, so far as pioneer exploration in Asia is concerned, may be said to be confined to two regions. In Southern and Central Arabia there are tracts which are entirely unexplored. It is probable that this unexplored region is in the main a sandy desert. At the same time it is, in the south at least, fringed by a border of mountains, whose slopes are capable of rich cultivation, and whose summits the late Mr. Theodore Bent found, on his last and fatal journey, to be covered with snow. In exploration, as in other directions, it is the unexpected that happens, and if any traveller cared to face the difficulties — physical, political, and religious — which might be met with in Southern and Central Arabia, he might be able to tell the world a surprising story. The other region in Asia where real pioneer work still remains to be done is Tibet and the mountainous districts bordering it.

New Fields for Exploration

Africa and the two Americas

Coming to the map of Africa, many curious problems still remain to be solved. The pioneer work of exploration has to a large extent been accomplished; lines have been run in all directions; the main features have been blocked out. But be-

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tween these lines the broad meshes remain to be filled in, and to do this will require many years of careful exploration. However, there still remain one or two regions that afford scope for the adventurous pioneer. To the south of Abyssinia and to the west and northwest of Lake Rudolf, on to the Upper Nile, is a region of considerable extent, which is still practically unknown. Again, in the Western Sahara there is an extensive area, inhabited mainly by the intractable Tuaregs, into which no one has been able to penetrate, and of which our knowledge is extremely scanty. Even in the Central Sahara there are great areas which have not been traversed, while in the Libyan desert much remains to be done.

North America has been very thoroughly explored. Still, though much has been done, much remains to be done. There are large areas which have not as yet even been roughly mapped. It is not so long since that Dr. Dawson, in reviewing what remains to be done in Canada in the way of even pioneer exploration, pointed out that something like a million square miles still remained to be mapped. It is when we come to Central and South America that we find ample room for the unofficial explorer. In Mexico and the Central American States there are considerable areas of which we have little or only the vaguest knowledge. In South America there is really more room now for the pioneer explorer than there is in Central Africa. In Patagonia, though a good deal has recently been done by the Argentine Government, still in the country between Punta Arenas and the Rio Negro we have much to learn; while on the west coast range, with its innumerable fjord-like inlets, its islands, and peninsulas, there is a fine field for the geologist and physical geographer. Indeed, throughout the whole range of the Andes systematic exploration is wanted, exploration of the character of the excellent work accomplished by Whymper in the region around Chimborazo.

There is an enormous area lying to the east of the Northern Andes, and including their eastern slopes, embracing the eastern half of Ecuador and Colombia, Southern Venezuela, and much of the country lying between that and Northern Bolivia, including many of the upper tributaries of the Amazon and the Orinoco, of which our knowledge is of the scantiest. Even the country lying between the Rio Negro and the Atlantic is but little known. There are other great areas, in Brazil and in the Northern Chaco, which have only been partially described, such as the region whence the streams forming the Tapajos and the Paraguay take their rise, in Matto Grosso. A survey and detailed geographical and topographical description of the whole basin of Lake Titicaca is a desideratum. In short, in South America there is a wider and richer field for exploration than in any other continent.

The North and South Poles

As to polar exploration, Dr. Keltie said that some one will reach the Pole at no distant date is certain. But Arctic exploration does not end with the attainment of the Pole. It may be that the islands which fringe the northern shores of the New World are continued far to the north; if so, they would form convenient stages for the work of a well-equipped expedition. It may be that they do not go much farther than we find them on our maps. Whatever be the case, it is important, in the interests of science, that this section of the polar area be examined. It is stated that the gallant Lieutenant Peary has organized a scheme for exploring this area which would take several years to accomplish. Meantime, should we look on with indifference? Surely this country has ambitions beyond mere material prosperity, and what better beginning could be made than the equipment of an expedition for the exploration of the seas that lie between her and the Pole.

Not only has an interest in Arctic exploration been revived, but, in Europe at least, an even greater interest has grown up in the exploration of the region around the opposite Pole of the earth of which our knowledge is so scanty. Surely, in the interests of our science, it is time we had a fairly adequate idea of what are the real conditions. The science of terrestrial magnetism is seriously impeded in its progress because the *data* in this department from the Antarctic are so scanty. We have here, in short, the most extensive unexplored area on the surface of the globe.

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

With Departments Devoted to the Interests of The Home University League.

Every person has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—GIBBON.

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G. MERCER ADAM, EDITOR
HOWARD P. RUGGLES, BUSINESS MANAGER

THE 1897 SCIENCE-CONGRESSES

It is the glory of our age that Science has entered into every modern industry, and invaded almost every province of thought. Interest is, therefore, naturally felt in the meetings of those great associations, British and American, that convene annually, and bring together those who are devoted, in one way or another, to its theoretical or practical pursuit. For the second time in its history, the British Association has met in Canada, Toronto this year having had the honor to entertain its many and distinguished members. One of the inducements to the gathering on this side of the Atlantic was that it might give members of the American Association the opportunity of joining their scientific brethren of England, and thus give to the Toronto meeting the character of an international scientific conference. The inducement, we regret to say, appears, however, to have been indifferently taken advantage of. Indeed, the gathering of our own scientists at Detroit, whatever the cause, was this year a poor one—probably owing to the recent loss of the President of the Association, or, as it is hinted, from a fear, which we should like to think was unfounded, that the British meeting would lessen the interest in our own national one. Despite the paucity of attendance, the forty-sixth session of the American Association was, in many respects, a notable one, the papers read being of high value; while the presence of several foreign savants, on their way to the Anglo-Canadian Science Conference, gave distinction to the meeting.

Owing to the lamented death of Prof. E. D. Cope, the late President of the Association, and the inability to be present of the new incumbent of the office, Dr. Wolcott Gibbs, of Harvard, Dr. Theodore Gill, of the Smithsonian Institution, opened the meeting and delivered the chief evening address. This was, in the main, devoted to a review of the scientific career of that great naturalist, Professor Cope, whose death the Association had recently to mourn. Important papers were read in the various sections devoted to mathematics and astronomy, to physics and chemistry, to mechanical science and engineering, to geology and geography, to social and economic science, to anthropology, and to zoölogy and botany. At the final sederunt, the question of celebrating, next year at Boston, the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Association was taken up, and an elaborate programme was arranged for. In a subsequent issue of SELF CULTURE we hope to present and discuss one or more of the thoughtful papers read at the meeting of the Association.

The meeting of the British Association at Toronto brought together a number of distinguished people of high scientific, literary and professional eminence. Besides the Governor-General of the Dominion, Lord Aberdeen, there were present Lord Lister, the eminent surgeon and inventor of antiseptics; Lord Kelvin (Sir Wm. Thomson), the first of English electricians; the new President, Sir John Evans, a noted archæologist; Dr. Michael Foster, the great physiologist; Dr. George M. Dawson, Chief of the Canadian Geological Survey and President of the Geological Section; Sir George Robertson, the soldier-hero of Chitral; Rt. Hon. James Bryce, M. P., author of the monumental work on the "American Commonwealth;" Professor Putman, President of the American Science Association; Professor Simon Newcomb, the eminent American astronomer; Sir Wm. Turner, the accomplished anatomist and President of the British Anthropological Section; and the following presiding officers of the other departments of the Association's work: Dr. Scott Keltie, and Professors Ramsay, Forsyth, Miall, Gonner, and Marshall Ward. The presence and active work of these eminent

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scientists attest the interest manifested by the great leaders of science in England in the Association's labors, and indicate the heartiness of their devotion to scientific pursuits. Above all, it is a recognition, on their part, of the great objects sought to be attained, not only at the annual conference, but by the practical work done in the various sections—these objects being, to give a stronger impulse and a more systematic direction to scientific inquiries; to promote the intercourse of those who cultivate science in different parts of the Empire with one another, and with foreign savants; to obtain a more general attention to the objects of science, and a removal of any hindrances or disadvantages, of whatever kind, which impede its progress. That its objects are secured and conserved, the work accomplished by the Association, and the large body of distinguished seekers after scientific truth, who are its enthusiastic members, attest. Another advantage possessed by the Association is in the status given to its workers by the Imperial Government, by the great universities and learned bodies, and by the recognition of their labors, in the way of titles and honors, by the Crown.

We cannot here take up the many subjects discussed in the learned papers read at the Conference, though we hope, in early issues of SELF CULTURE, to present abstracts of the more important of them, with a résumé of the others. To the writer, it was a keen delight and privilege to be present at the meeting, which, whether one has scientific proclivities or not, or is merely a student of scientific truth, was an education itself.

PROSPERITY FOR THE FARMER

As the season advances, the indications increase of a period of prosperity over the Continent such as we have not had for a number of years. The country's great export staple is not only in great demand, in consequence of light crops in foreign lands, but the price keeps up to its high-paying figure; and, happily, this year it is the farmer, and not the speculator alone, who stands to profit by "dollar wheat." Calculations based on present prices give the farmers of the United States in the aggregate five hundred million dollars more for their wheat than they received for that product last year. This means good times all round, and to the farmer, with contentment, which it has not been possible for him to feel for many seasons, it will bring payment of debts, cancellation of mortgages, and large additions to his usually meagre store of comfort and happiness. One beneficent result of returning good times will be to silence the clamor for that heresy of last year—cheap money. In this country, not for many seasons has the farmer known such prosperity. Nor is this the result alone of an extraordinary yield of high-priced wheat. There have been large yields of root-crops as well, while if corn is not this year more plentiful, it will bring in the market from five to ten cents more than it did last year per bushel. The orchards have, as a rule, also done well this season, while the demand for fruit increases year by year.

The areas throughout the United States that have been specially favored by the abundant harvests of the present year are, of course, those in which wheat is chiefly raised. In those kindly regions, the high-priced grain is said to be blocking railroad traffic, and crowding the yards of stations over a large and wide-spread area. In some States, in Southern Kansas and Oklahoma, for example, the wheat yield this year is unprecedented. One statistician affirms that there have been many fields cut during August in which the straw was six feet in height, and the yield forty-five or more bushels to the acre. The same authority makes an interesting comparison between the amount of wheat raised this year and last year in Kansas, Nebraska, and Oklahoma. In 1896, he computes that the total yield in these two named States and the new territory was fifty-four million bushels, while this year the same area has produced one hundred million bushels, returning, with ruling prices doubled, an enormous addition to the wealth of the cultivators of the region. The writer referred to also states that, during the past three years, the farmers of Kansas and Nebraska have paid off mortgage indebtedness to the extent of eighty million dollars. A similar tale of prosperity happily comes from many other wheat-growing States in the Union.

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PALESTINE FOR THE JEWS

A movement was broached at the recent Zionist Congress, held at Basel, in Switzerland, with the design of acquiring Palestine, by purchase from Turkey, and establishing the Jews in their old heritage in the Holy Land. About two hundred delegates from all parts of Europe were present at the Congress, and crusading Judaism was treated to enthusiastic addresses by Dr. Theodor Herzl, a political journalist of Vienna, and by the celebrated Herr Nordau, author of "Degeneration," and many attacks on the decadent modern-day types of the race. A Zionward propaganda is no new development among the seed of Abraham scattered over the world; but the present movement is the most serious one in modern times, looking to the repatriation of the Jewish race, and its active colonization in the Holy Land. The motive which inspires the movement seems to be partly political and partly commercial, though much is made of the argument that by going back to its ancient possessions in Palestine it will enable Jewry to sever itself from the anti-Semites of Europe who have been subjecting the race anew to much and harassing persecution.

The project, however, has its opponents within and without Israel. Within the fold, objection is taken to a new exodus, since it would be a desertion of the mission, held by many Jews, of one day converting the Gentile and regenerating the world. Without the fold, the proposed movement is met with a demurrer, on account of its political design, to establish in Palestine an Israelitish Commonwealth, with all the machinery, including troops and armaments, of a modern government, in a position one day, it may be, to affect the interests of the established nations of Europe, and, occupying a strategical position, which might menace the Suez canal and the projected short-cut railroad *via* the Euphrates Valley to the far East. Another objection, sure to be raised by Russia, would be the necessitated surrender of her protectorate over the Eastern Orthodox Christians in Palestine, and the lowering of her prestige, in handing over to a Semitic government her guardianship of the Holy Places in Jerusalem.

The Zionist movement, it will be seen, therefore, is not likely to be smooth sailing, even if it were possible for the Jew to exchange, in the rich marts of the world, the money-bag for the ploughshare, and withdraw himself from the congenial pursuits and attractive pleasure-scenes of Gentile Mammon. A prominent opponent of the project in Austria has just said: "Knowing the Jews as I do, it looks to me as if the scheme will prove impracticable. The Jew prefers to remain where he can fatten best." This may be a harsh judgment, but the Jew himself is mainly responsible for it, since his is an intrusive and parasitic race, and to that fact is due much of the national hostility to him among the peoples of Europe, whose substance, through usury, largely passes into his hands. His tribal habits and unsocial bearing—his race being a nation apart in every nation—offend the spirit of nationality and patriotism in the countries in which he prefers to be an alien, and intensify the bitterness of monetary extortion. This, of course, is no excuse for making the Jew a religious martyr, or indeed, for visiting upon him racial enmities and social prejudices. But exclusiveness and rapacity do not tend to make the Jew anywhere palatable to the Gentile.

Israelitic nationalism would obviously augment, rather than modify, the race characteristics of the Hebrew, though these distinctions of this ancient people are such as no process of contact with other nations has been able to remove. No friend of humanity will, however, look coldly upon a movement which has not only sentiment but religion and tradition of race behind it; and if the restoration of this wandering people to agricultural pursuits in Palestine is the aim and hope of the race, by all means let its wishes have effect and its desires be gratified. In the Holy Land, as elsewhere, the Jew will do more for civilization than will the Turk.

To restore Jewish nationality in Palestine will, however, make a heavy demand upon the wealthy members of the race, for the Sultan will make a hard bargain before he parts with any of his possessions. Yet some latter-day Baron Hirsch may step forward and give practical effect to the restoration project, though there will first have to be unanimity among the "Lovers of Zion" and a settled policy as to the purposes and aims embraced in the Judaic national idea.

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LABOR DISTURBANCES Communities, actuated by sentimental feeling, have generally looked leniently upon the growing disposition of dissatisfied labor to strike when its demands have not been complied with. Trade unions and other labor organizations have not only encouraged the tendency to revolt, but have done much, in recent years, to evoke the anti-social spirit, and to foster industrial antagonisms. To protect itself against the incitement of this spirit, capital, on the other hand, has grown hard, and, at times, has shown itself obdurate and sullen.

The result of both attitudes is fatal to the spirit of arbitration, and, indeed, discourages it for open war. What it leads to, we have just seen in the riotous proceedings and social incendiarism, culminating in pitiful bloodshed, which marked the coal miners' strike in Pennsylvania. A more distressing instance of human perverseness and fatuity of conduct has not occurred for a long while than is shown in this affair at Hazleton, Pa., and the lesson of the tragedy may well be heeded, alike by capital and by labor. Had the spirit of reason and conciliation prevailed, with considerate regard for the fact that the disaffected miners were ignorant foreigners, such a sequel to the strike, which all good men must deplore, could not have occurred.

It will probably be said that the fact that the strikers were foreigners, escaped from the governmental pressure and social thraldom of the Old World, explains the lawlessness which brought upon the men their ill-starred doom. But this is only to palter with the matter, since the spirit which engenders strikes has, unhappily, been active in this country long before the advent of these men. It is the spirit that has constantly bred disturbances, antagonized capital, alienated classes, and flouted the gospel of honest industry, thrifty contentment, and harmonious living. It is a spirit, moreover, which is constantly growing, and is an increasing menace to the world of peace and order, and may well cause dismay to it. It is the spirit which is to-day the great peril of industrialism, and one that unlettered labor, coming into the country, is not slow to learn. Its indulgence speedily tends to class embitterment, lawlessness, and its accompaning havoc.

In taking this view of a matter that must fill all breasts with anxiety, we do not, of course, deny the right of workmen to strike, nor conceal from ourselves what labor has gained from organization. It is not to combination among the toilers that we demur, but to the evil counsel, the unreasoning, haggling spirit, and all that in tone and feeling is hostile to conciliation, and that tends to widen the breach and cause increasing distrust between employer and employed. These are the things we deplore, and we see their legitimate outcome in the tragedy the other day at the closed mines of Pennsylvania. The temper could not be else than turbulent and the spirit lawless that brought the strikers into conflict with the civil power and so met the cruel fate that befell them.

Into the question of the precipitate firing by the sheriff's deputies upon the miners, though unarmed, we are unwilling, as it would be unprofitable, to enter. Whatever justification there was for the act, cooler heads, doubtless, would have restrained the shooting, while the sheriff, if not the mining companies interested, ought to have been able to bring the men to reason. The time for reason, we do not forget, however, had probably gone past, else the men would not have been where they were and in the mood which hurried them into a lawless assembling. In the appalling affair, turbulence has had a lesson which ought to teach disaffected labor to pay greater respect to the mandate of law, as well as to place restraint upon passion and refrain from all illegal acts, including disregard of civil authority, obstruction of the public highway, coercion and intimidation. The employer is enjoined by the calamity to the exercise of a more friendly, considerate and humane spirit in his relations with labor, and to a juster treatment than that which leads to strikes and lockouts. The nation has also its lesson in the need for greater supervision over the immigration laws,—a supervision that will emphasize the fact that the ignorant and undisciplined masses of the Old World are not transformed in a twinkling by crossing the sea. The collision at Lattimer is but one of the warning bells that for some years have been ringing, and to which we have not paid heed. Shall we even pay heed now?

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THE FRONTIER RISINGS IN INDIA

Elsewhere, in the present issue (page 71), we have dealt with the presumed causes of the alarming outbreak among the Moslem hillsmen on the northwestern frontiers of British India. The rising has naturally caused much anxiety throughout Hindustan, as well as in England, since it was impossible to say how far sedition would go, or to what extent, in the peril of the time, Britain could depend upon her ally and pensioner, the Ameer of Afghanistan, to whom the disaffected tribes look as a possible leader in a "holy war" against the infidel conqueror of India, and as the local Caliph of the Faithful. Abdur Rahman Khan is not only an Asiatic but a Mohammedan, and though his pecuniary interests lie in keeping faith with Britain, he is, it is to be feared, not above treachery, and is known to have intimate relations with his co-religionist sovereign ally, the Sultan. The whole disturbance, it is believed, has arisen from this latter fact, since the Ameer is deemed an intriguer for the Faith, and is being made use of by the sinister emissaries of Turkey. By the latter, the Sultan's success in the recent war against Greece has been magnified into a victory for the Crescent over the Cross, and at the same time a defeat of the allied Christian Powers. It is this, it is thought, that has inflamed Mohammedan minds in the East and given the fanatical Afghan hillsmen hope of a coming millennium for Islam.

There are not wanting, it is believed, however, other causes in India that explain the present Mussulman disaffection and unrest. These are the increasing antipathy of educated natives, in the more civilized centres of India, towards British rule, and among the high-strung Pathan tribes occupying the frontier hill-country a deep-rooted dislike to England's encroachments in the Province of Chitral, and the establishment there of what is known among military men as the "scientific frontier." The former of these incitements to disaffection has, presumedly, no connection with the present outbreak. It, nevertheless, occasions uneasiness, especially when taken in connection with the recent murderings at Calcutta and the trouble at Poona. The extension of English dominions in Chitral is a more likely cause of disaffection, and coupled with the religious question may account for the insurrectionary risings on the Samana range and the treacherous descent by the Afridis and other local tribes upon the British hill posts.

Those who know India best ascribe the trouble alone to religious fanaticism, aroused to white heat by incendiary mullahs, or preachers, who teach not only that Mahomet is the prophet of God, but that the doors of paradise are opened wide by the spilling of Christian blood. One who has some knowledge of the Indian frontier thus speaks of these bigoted Moslems:

> Along the entire border there is always simmering among the more turbulent tribal element, who chafe under the order and restriction of licence imposed by the British method, a feeling of resentment which fiery preachers can in times of excitement inflame to boiling point. In a year when India has suffered from famine and pestilence, when rumors of sedition have been widespread in the native Press, and when a great strain has been placed upon the resources of Government, a considerable increase in the area and number of the points of ebullition is not to be wondered at.

The outbreak comes at an inopportune moment for the English Government in India, so far as ability to meet the financial costs of punitive expeditions is concerned, and the levying and massing of forces in the region to quell the disturbance and ensure the safety of the Indian Empire. The Government, it will be recalled, has had in recent years to incur great indebtedness to meet the drain upon the Treasury caused by famine, and to supply funds for extensive schemes of irrigation and the construction of public works to give employment to the impoverished native millions. The addition to its burdens of a heavy military outlay for the suppression of rebellion is therefore, at present, a serious matter to the Government. It is a burden that cannot however be shirked, and the English and Anglo-Indian taxpayer may well pray for a speedy termination of the trouble and the effective pacification of the disaffected district. Civilization may also pray that English rule may not be seriously disturbed in its beneficent administration of India. British conquest, in the case of India, however it may be cavilled at, has certainly been a gain to the myriads of the Empire. In these outbreaks, however, there would seem to be some danger in its wise policy of moderation.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH.

Wednesday, August 11.—The Attorney-General decided that goods regularly imported into Canada and subsequently exported to the United States must pay the discriminating duty of ten per cent. under the new tariff law....The domestic exports for July amounted in value to $36,945,278, as against $35,645,849 for the same month of 1896....Jacob S. Coxey was nominated for governor by the Ohio Populist state convention at Columbus.

Thursday, August 12.—According to treasury department records British vessels are carrying over 55 per cent. of the imports and exports of United States merchandise.....Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Canadian premier, had an audience with the Pope....The Ottawa government has notified collectors of customs to give France the benefit of the preferential clause of the Canadian tariff act....Placards demanding a change in the system of Turkey's government have been posted in Constantinople....A treaty of arbitration has been concluded between Spain and Peru.

Friday, August 13.—Professor Frederick Ward Putnam, of Harvard, was elected president of the American association for the advancement of science in Detroit....The marches of the strikers at the De Armitt coal mines were stopped by the sheriff and a large force of deputies; a riot was narrowly averted....Further evidence that the Ameer of Afghanistan is conniving at, if not actually assisting, the tribal risings in India came to light; the matter is regarded as serious in London....Sir Isaac Holden, M. P., inventor of the lucifer match and of a carding machine for wool, died in England, aged nine-one.

Saturday, August 14.—Nathan A. Hitchcock, of St. Louis, accepted the post of minister to Russia, offered to him by the President....The Union Iron Works, of San Francisco, has accepted the navy department's terms for the diagonal armor for the bulkheads for the battleship *Wisconsin*, now under construction at their shipyards....United States Senator James Z. George, of Mississippi, died at Mississippi City....The exports from Great Britain to the United States have decreased 50 per cent. since the Dingley tariff went into effect....Great military activity is reported in India; it is believed the Indian government is preparing to punish the Ameer of Afghanistan for stirring up rebellion in India.

Sunday, August 15.—The State department has been assured that Canada is not imposing exorbitant charges on miners' outfits for Klondyke....The Count of Turin and Prince Henry of Orleans fought a duel with swords near Paris; Prince Henry was seriously wounded....Great excitement prevails on the Afghan-Indian frontier, and firing is reported from Fort Shabkadr....Nearly a thousand gold-seekers sailed from Victoria, B. C., bound for the Klondyke region.....It is expected that the dispute in the engineering trades of England will involve 70,000 men within a week....Signor G. Costa, Italian minister of justice, is dead.

Monday, August 16.—The decline of silver continues, a new low record being made in New York—54⅜ cents; at this price the intrinsic value of the standard silver dollar is 42.25 cents ....Most of the cotton mills in Fall River, Massachusetts, which had stopped temporarily, started on full time....Michel Angiolillo, the assassin of Premier Canovas del Castillo, who was tried by court-martial, was found guilty and sentenced to death....Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Canadian premier, said to members of the Cobden club, who presented him with a gold medal in recognition of his attachment to free trade, that the commercial supremacy of Great Britain was assured until the United States adopted free trade....A firman has been issued by the Ameer of Afghanistan forbidding his subjects to join the rebels who are now in arms against the Indian government.

Tuesday, August 17.—The twenty-third annual meeting of the American bankers' association began in Detroit....David G. Swaim, United States army, retired judge advocate-general, died in Washington, D. C., aged 63....Information received at Christiana, Norway, confirms the report that a message from Herr Andree was found on a pigeon which was shot on the north coast of Lapland....Owing to the refusal of Lord Salisbury to allow a Turkish occupation of Thessaly, pending a partial payment of the indemnity agreed upon, the peace negotiations are at a standstill.

Wednesday, August 18.—Constructor Dashiel, of the navy, has been ordered to England to secure information for the board which is preparing a project for a system of drydocks for the navy....Armenian revolutionists exploded a bomb in the buildings occupied by the Turkish government in Stamboul....President Faure left Paris on his way to visit the Czar....A dispatch from Simla, India, states that the whole frontier of that country seems to be aflame and the rebels are marching upon British posts.... The Duke and Duchess of York arrived in Dublin and were given an enthusiastic welcome.

Thursday, August 19.—Secretary of State Sherman has submitted to the Japanese government an answer to Japan's last note relating to the annexation of Hawaii by the United States ....The internal revenue receipts for July were $19,472,468, an increase of $5,213,976 over the same month of 1896....Spain, it is stated, intends to press strongly her claim to compensation for filibustering ...The rapid mobilization of the British troops in India, and the activity of the military authorities in pushing forward reinforcements, are regarded as assuring the safety of the Indian frontier....The King of Siam, who is in London, will not visit the United States, as at first proposed.

Friday, August 20.—The exports of the United States to Japan during the past fiscal year amounted to $13,233,970 and the imports to $24,000,000....Ex-Governor Boies, in opening the Democratic campaign in Iowa, said he could not believe that free coinage at 16 to 1 is within the reach of its friends, or desirable even if attainable....Ethan A. Hitchcock, of Missouri, is minister to Russia....General Azcarraga, Spain's minister of war, is made premier....Michele Angiolillo, who shot and killed Señor

Canovas del Castillo, the prime minister of Spain, was executed....Señor Sagasta, the Spanish liberal leader, is said to have written a letter in which he stated that the Cuban atrocities are "raising a thrill of horror in Europe."

Saturday, August 21.—The administration will endeavor to negotiate with Spain a treaty for a commission to settle the claims of citizens of both countries growing out of the Cuban insurrection....The King of Benin, in West Africa, has formally submitted to the British authorities, who captured Benin city after the massacre of Consul Phillips and his expedition....General Azcarraga, the new Spanish premier, announces that he is in accord with Captain-General Weyler as to Cuba.

Sunday, August 22.—Commissioner of Pensions Evans and Assistant Secretary of the Interior Davis favor pensions for claimants who left the Confederate service and served in the union army....The rise in the price of bread has caused serious agitation in French cities.... The London anarchists held a meeting in Trafalgar square; utterances of the speakers provoked disorder, which was suppressed by the police ....The King of Siam, arrived in Cologne....A mass-meeting of Athenians adopted an address asking King George of Greece to resume hostilities against Turkey....The peace negotiations between the government in Uruguay and the insurgents have failed, and the war will go on.

Monday, August 23.—President McKinley and Secretary Alger finished their stay at Lake Champlain and started for the national encampment of the Grand Army in Buffalo....Camp Jewett was accepted by Commander-in-Chief Clarkson, and the Grand Army encampment was begun in Buffalo....M. Faure, president of France, arrived in Russia, and is the guest of the Czar at the Peterhof palace ...The Afridis made attacks on Ali-Musjid and Fort Maude, and it was rumored that they had fallen; the revolt has assumed alarming proportions....The Imperial Ottoman bank announces its willingness to provide the entire amount of the indemnity to be paid by Greece to Turkey, if control of Greek finances is assured as security....Many papers of great interest were read at the meeting in Toronto of the British association for the advancement of science.

Tuesday, August 24.—President McKinley visited the encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic at Buffalo, N. Y., and made several speeches ...The final conference of mine operators and strikers' officials at Pittsburg proved a failure, and the strike continues....Official dispatches from India announce that the rebellious Afridis have captured and burned Fort Maude in the Khyber pass; the news is regarded in London as being of the gravest character....The congress of the Republic of Salvador has decided to change the currency of that country to a gold basis.

Wednesday, August 25.—The President has appointed W. R. Halloway, of Indiana, consul-general at St. Petersburg....President Idiarte Borda, of Uruguay, was shot and killed by an assassin in Montevideo during the celebration of the independence of Uruguay....Fort Ali-Musjid, in the Khyber pass of India, was abandoned to the Afridis after eleven of the garrison had deserted....President Krüger, in a speech to the volksraad at Pretoria, declared that the South African republic cannot recognize the suzerainty of Great Britain.

Thursday, August 26.—J. P. S. Gobin, of Lebanon, Penn., was elected Commander-in Chief of the Grand Army, and Cincinnati was chosen as the place of the next national encampment....A steamer and two sailing vessels reached Puget Sound ports from Alaska, bringing gold dust and miners from the Klondyke country....The Afridis have captured and burned Fort Lundi-kotal and the rebellious tribesmen are now in complete possession of the famous Khyber pass, leading from Afghanistan into India.....The North German *Gazette* announces that Dr. von Holleben, Prussian minister at Stuttgart, Württemberg, has been selected for the post of German ambassador to the United States.

Friday, August 27.— Assistant Secretary of Agriculture Brigham says American farmers will receive this year for their products nearly $500,000,000 more than last year....General Woodford, minister to Spain, informs the State Department that he will leave Paris for San Sebastian on August 31; he expects to be received there by the queen regent....Secretary Sherman will next go to Ohio and open the campaign....King Menelik's proposition concerning the delimitation of the Erythrean frontier has been accepted by Italy.

Saturday, August 28.—The officers of the merchants' association, of New York, estimate that the benefit by the visit of buyers from all parts of the country this fall to New York will approximate $50,000,000, and say that the benefits to be derived in the future by the extension of trade are incalculable....The senatorial campaign in South Carolina practically closed; there are four candidates in the field.... A Chicago inventor is said to have solved the problem of telegraphy from moving trains.... A great revival of business is in progress in the cotton mills of New England....Sharp fighting between the British detachments and the rebellious hill tribes continues on the Afghan frontier....The Spanish government is arranging for a fresh loan to strengthen her navy, the pledge to be the navigation tax....A new ministry has been named in Uruguay, and peace between the revolutionists and the government is expected.

Sunday, August 29.—Fighting along the northwest frontier of India continues, scattered British outposts being attacked by the rebel tribesmen....The Zionist congress in session at Bâsel, Switzerland, discussed a plan for the purchase of Palestine for the Jews..... An international diplomatic conference looking to the surveillance of anarchists is expected to be held soon in Brussels....The Hungarian Minister of Agriculture estimates the world's wheat harvest at 573,760,000 metric hundredweight, while the requirements are 655,150,000 hundredweight.

Monday ,August 30.—The congress of labor leaders opened in St. Louis....The Spanish cabinet decided to call out the reserves and send additional forces to Cuba and the Philippines....

A strong force of Afridis closed the Kohat pass....A commercial treaty between Japan and Portugal was signed.

Tuesday, August 31. — The public debt statement to be issued to-day will show a deficit for August of $15,000,000....The national farmers' congress began its sessions at St. Paul, Minn. ....Mrs. John Drew, the actress, died at Larchmont, New York, aged 79 ...President Faure arrived in Paris from Russia....The first session of the British medical association to be held in Canada opened in Montreal.....Dispatches from Bombay, India, say that the Kohat pass, which was closed by tribesmen, has been reopened....Disquieting news has been received from Quetta, the British military post in Beluchistan....The czar has decided upon the partial abolition of the exile to Siberia of criminals and the substitution therefor of confinement in prisons in Russia.

Wednesday, September 1. — The Citizens' Union, of New York, nominated Seth Low to be mayor of Greater New York....It is stated that the Hawaiian government intends to ratify the annexation treaty before the United States congress does....President E. Benjamin Andrews, of Brown university, was requested by the university corporation to withdraw his resignation....Colonel Gordon's British column has arrived at Kohat, India, without having met with any opposition; The Afridis have apparently left the Khyber pass.....The Zionist congress held its final session in Basel; the committee was authorized to raise a fund of $50,000,000.

Thursday, September 2. — President McKinley was present at the reunion of his old regiment at Fremont, Ohio, and visited the grave of ex-President Hayes....Postmaster-General Gary has arranged for an exchange of mails between Dyea, Alaska, and Dawson City, Canada, for the benefit of the gold miners of the Klondike country....The farmers' congress at St. Paul, Minn., declared against government ownership of railroads....Colonel Abbott, with a British force, made an attack on a large force of rebellious tribesmen in India, routing them ....The King of Siam paid a visit to Prince Bismarck at Friedrichsruh.

Friday, September 3. — Secretary Sherman and M. Patenôtre, the French ambassador, discussed the proposed treaty of reciprocity with France....The Republican state convention of Colorado was held in Denver; Hon. Charles D. Hoyt, justice of the supreme court, was nominated by acclamation; he is a silver Republican....The members of the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition returned from Franz Josef land, after spending three winters there and making many important observations.

Saturday, September 4. — President McKinley returned to Canton, Ohio....Secretary Gage issued instructions to collectors of customs governing the admission of personal effects under the new tariff law....Seth Low will resign the Presidency of Columbia before entering upon the campaign for the New York mayoralty.....Reports received from the Michipicoten gold fields indicate that they are nearly as rich as the Klondike....Native rulers in India offered the services of their troops against the rebels....The Vigilance Committee of Skaguay, in the Klondike region, has begun to punish offenders against the moral code.

Sunday, September 5. — Charles M. Charnley, of Chicago, treasurer of the Presbyterian board of aid for colleges, is charged with having misappropriated $50,000....It is reported that the followers of Hadda Mullah are deserting him, and the Afridis are returning to Khyber pass; it is estimated that 17,000 tribesmen are now on the Samana range, but they have made no move to attack the government troops ....It is said that the sultan and czar have made an agreement whereby the sultan is never to use his influence against Russia in Central Asia, and the czar is to uphold Turkish rights in Europe.

Monday, September 6. — Yellow fever is officially declared by southern boards of health to exist at Ocean Springs, Miss., and rigid precautions have been taken to prevent the spread of the scourge; one death from the disease occurred in New Orleans....President McKinley left Canton for Somerset, Penn.... Lord Salisbury has submitted fresh proposals respecting the conclusion of peace between Greece and Turkey....It was estimated by the *Mark Lane Express* that the deficiency in the world's wheat supply would be 14,000,000 quarters.

Tuesday, September 7.—Prompt measures are being taken at Ocean Springs, Miss., to stamp out the yellow fever....The United States commercial agent at Robaix, France, writes the State Department that Canada and the United States will be called upon to send to Europe 120,000,000 more bushels of wheat than they exported last year....The news from India is favorable to the British; the Orakzais are disheartened by losses, the Swatis are submitting, and the Hadda Mullah has gone home discouraged, owing to the refusal of the Mohmands to join in the uprising.

Wednesday, September 8.—Dr. Guiteras began his investigations at Ocean Springs; there have been 748 cases of the prevailing fever since July 8; 37 are still sick; the total deaths have been 9, and in several instances physician's certificates show the fever was complicated with other diseases....President Andrews, of Brown University, has declined to withdraw his resignation....The Prohibitionists of New York and Massachusetts held State conventions....It is reported in Lima, Peru, that 250 Paraguayans have seized the town of Chiquitos, in Bolivia.

Thursday, September 9.—Secretary Sherman stated that he was convinced that there was no truth in the report that Great Britain had undertaken to complete the Panama canal.... The amount paid by the United States for pensions last year was $140,477,637; the cost of the service was $3.99 per $1,000....Gold Democrats of Ohio held a convention at Columbus. ....The Government of India has informed the Ameer of Afghanistan that the present operations in Afghan territory are intended solely to punish Hadda Mullah and his followers in arms; that there is no intention to interfere with tribal independence, or permanently to occupy the country.

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INQUIRIES ANSWERED

WILL you kindly explain, in your instructive pages, the cause of the present disturbances on the northern frontiers of the Indian Empire. The British Government, I notice, seems to suspect treachery on the part of the Ameer of Afghanistan and to dread, as I dare say it well may, any extension of the area of disaffection on the borders of its great East Indian possessions. A discussion of the matter in SELF CULTURE will be much appreciated by a constant reader.

England may well be uneasy over the disturbances that have broken out on the northwest Indian frontier, for on her ability to quell them, and that at once and effectively, the integrity and security of her vast Asiatic possessions depend. The trouble that has arisen, and that continues still to menace the whole of British India, has religious fanaticism as its chief cause — the incitement to disaffection and revolt being stirred up, it is supposed, by the Mohammedan emissaries of the Sultan. The seditious tribes are the redoubtable hillsmen of the Afghan border, and of what is called "the glacis of the Punjab," who have never accepted British rule or come into the loose confederacy of Afghanistan, though their wild hill country has for some time been within the sphere of British influence. Though of Tartar origin, these revolting Himalayan tribes — which include the Afridis, Bonerwals, Mohmands, Orakzias, Pathans, and the Swatis, or denizens of the Upper Swat Valley — are Mussulmans, full of anti-European hate, fanatical in their Moslem beliefs, and wildly athirst for blood. Their present restlessness is incited by religious fanaticism, and by the mad hope of leading a crusade against the British and restoring in Hindustan the rule of Mohammedan power. Against the denizens of these turbulent highland clans England trusts, in addition to her own European troops, the integrity of her Hindoo levies — the Sikhs, Ghoorkas, Rajpoots, and Mahrattas — the native warrior races on whose well-tried loyalty she has hitherto depended, and who are not likely now to forsake her under any cajoling influences whatever.

Just how far the Ameer of Afghanistan is to be trusted, in the event of a wholesale rising against British rule, it is difficult to say, though he has already issued a firman forbidding his subjects to join those in revolt, and has instructed his governors to punish any Afghans who may take part in raiding expeditions across the British lines. There is, nevertheless, a fear that Abdur Rahman Khan, the reigning Ameer, is playing a part and furtively instigating trouble. The probabilities are, however, that he is too prudent to risk a rupture with the British government, who ere now has made and unmade many an Afghan prince, and would, perhaps, not be loth to-day to find an excuse for conquering and annexing his country. In face of the inciting religious causes of the rising, it can only be conjectured how far the Afghans will be loyal to the Ameer's orders, to abstain from joining the standard of revolt. Hence a heavy hand will for a time be necessary to restrain turbulence, wipe out disaffection, and maintain inviolate the security of the Indian Empire. England has had lessons enough in India to put her on her guard against Asiatic treachery, and with the Khyber Pass closed against her troops, and sedition broadcast over the entire northern frontier of India, she has reason to dread the immediate future and justification for mobilizing a formidable force to cope with the border troubles.

So far, the rising has been without success, though there has already been heavy fighting, and there are also indications that a "jehad" or holy war, against the Christian "infidel" who holds India in subjection, is about to break out. Already English valor has displayed itself in the defense of Fort Shabkadr and in its relief by General Elles and Lt.-Colonel Moon, who had promptly set out from Peshawar to bring succor. Sir Bindon Blood has also accomplished much, in the valley of the Swat, in reducing the hostile tribesmen in that region to subjection. By the latest accounts, strong reinforcements were, however, still called for, and a couple of reserve brigades had already assembled at Kohat; while large bodies of trustworthy troops were being massed at Peshawar, and especially at Quetta, near the borders of the Province of Chittral, to reopen the famous Khyber Pass and oppose the advance of the fanatic followers of the "Mad Mullah" of Hadda.

Kindly advise me if one must be a graduate of a High or Normal School to become a graduate in music. Also, if it is absolutely essential that one should be able to play at sight all grades of music. Is a musician supposed to be able to do this?

It is not, we believe, necessary that one should be a High or Normal School graduate to

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be eligible for graduation in a college of music. Before one can become a Doctor of Music at a university, it is, however, essential that one should go through the arts or literary course. In competing for honors or in graduating in music, we should say that it was not a *sine qua non* that one should be able to play or read music of all kinds at first sight. The ability to do that is a gift that, as a rule, even first-rate musicians do not possess; nor are composers of eminence able always to read difficult pieces at sight.

I have in my possession a plant, called Night-Blooming Cereus, and desire a brief account of it, and to know whether it can be preserved by some process, in such a way that it will retain all its original beauty.

The Night-Blooming Cereus (*cereus grandiflorus*), belongs to the Cactus family of flowering plants, and is sometimes used in medicine as an antispadmodic. It is a native of South America, and bears large, beautiful and fragrant flowers, which expand and fade in a few hours. We know no sure way of preserving them, for the flower is very short-lived — only opening after dark and perishing before morning. You might try, however, the usual plan of preserving plants for a time by inserting their stems in water in which 25 grains of ammonium chloride (sal ammoniac), have been dissolved. Flowers can be preserved in this way for fifteen to twenty days. To preserve flowers for several months, dip them into perfectly limpid gum water and then allow them to drain. The gum forms a complete coating on the stems and petals, and preserves their shape and color long after they have become dry.

I should like some points for an essay on the difference between Weather and Climate. Will SELF CULTURE kindly help me?

Climate depends upon fixed conditions of latitude and solar heat, and the modifications resulting from such fundamental facts as the earth's annual and diurnal motions, the distribution of land and water, the physical and geological character of the land and its elevation above the sea. Climate is thus the broad result of all the agencies influencing the atmospheric variations at the locality under consideration, while weather has a much more limited meaning, and, as popularly used, has reference merely to a particular phase of these atmospheric changes at a particular time. Practically, for point and brevity it is difficult to improve on the schoolboy's definition that "Weather is what we have to-day and climate is what we have all the time."

In our lecture-room the other day, in a lesson on mechanics, we were asked to bring a drawing of a wheelbarrow that would show an improvement in the method of its construction. May I ask SELF CULTURE to point out in what way it could be improved?

Your Professor, no doubt, wanted you to discover for yourself that the principle on which the wheelbarrow is constructed is all wrong. Whoever uses one knows that a considerable portion of the weight, instead of resting on the wheel, falls on the person holding the handles. To obviate this, the wheel, manifestly, should be placed in the centre. The Chinese, understanding this, some centuries ago made their wheelbarrows on the central wheel system and solved the wheelbarrow problem. As Chinese towns have such narrow streets, ordinary vehicles cannot pass along them, so this brings the barrow into constant use, and it is so constructed, with the idea of saving labor, that the weight falls directly over the wheel. The latter, which is generally between thirty and forty inches in diameter, is in the middle of the frame. The load is placed in latticed boxes on each side of it. When a Chinaman has anything to carry he adopts the same principle. An English laborer will put his bundle at one end of a stick and lay it over his shoulder. But "John" takes a pole instead of a stick, divides what he has to carry into two equal parts, and makes them balance one another. If he has only a spade and a pick-axe to carry he does not use his hands. Before he starts out to his work he attaches them with a scrap of rope at either end of his "carrier," and struts off looking like a pair of scales creeping over the ground.

I am interested in the intelligence of horses, and wish to ask if the breadth of the forehead of an animal is any indication of its intelligence.

Horses, like human beings, have varied capabilities and special qualities, dependent upon climate, employment, and heredity. The build, color of the hair, eyes, hoof, and many other points, have been found to deviate, giving special fitness for various purposes. It has been noticed by intelligent observers that horses with broad foreheads are much more clever and intelligent than those with narrow ones. In cavalry regiments, it is known that horses with broad foreheads learn their drill much more

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quickly than others. As regards color, grey horses live longest, roan horses nearly as long. Cream-colored horses are deficient in staying power, especially in summer weather. Bays, on the average, are the best. Horses with black hoofs are stronger and tougher than others. There are some points which are valuable in horses of every description. The head should be proportionately large, and well set on; the lower jaw-bones should be sufficiently far apart to enable the head to form that angle with the neck which gives to it free motion and a graceful carriage, and prevents its bearing too heavy on the hand. The eye should be large, a little prominent, and the eyelid fine and thin. The ear should be small and erect, and quick in motion. The lop-ear indicates dulness or stubbornness; when too far back there is a disposition to mischief. To show the intelligence of the horse, it is stated that in a London circus recently a horse obeyed no less than 400 different orders.

I desire your advice as to what books I should study (outside of the Encyclopædia Britannica) on Hydromechanics. I am a plumber by trade and would like to educate myself in Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, and Pneumatics. I may say that I have no knowledge of Algebra, which, it seems to me, I must have before I can thoroughly understand the solution of the problems in the Britannica. Pray kindly inform me of any good works on any or all of the subjects mentioned, which give the operations in Fractions or Decimals.

We fear that it will be impracticable for you to begin the study of Hydrostatics until you have made yourself familiar with at least the elements of Geometry and Algebra, and of perhaps Trigonometry. The symbols of Algebra and of the Differential Calculus are employed even in the most elementary works on Hydrostatics and Hydraulics. You could, however, we think, take the study of Algebra and Geometry and carry them on at the same time with your study of Hydromechanics, thus making your knowledge of mathematics advance simultaneously with the other studies. This will make your progress slower, but it is, we believe, the only method for you to pursue unless you take the mathematical studies first. All text-books on Hydrostatics deal with the problems and theories in algebraic terms, no matter how elementary they are, though any capable young man can do fully as well for himself by taking up so much of mathematics as bears on the practical side of the study of Hydrostatics at the outset of his studies in the latter subject. He will then learn exactly what he needs to know, though of course the work will be more tedious and take much longer time. We would recommend for your first study the works of George M. Minchin—"Hydrostatics and Elementary Hydrokinetics" and "Statics." These works treat the subject in the most elementary style and are standard and recent. They are published in New York, by the Macmillan Co., 66 Fifth Ave. There are other good works on Hydrostatics, though teachers are partial to authors they know; yet, we may say that any recently published good text-book on the subject would answer the purpose, as all are largely repetitions of earlier works, with added improvements.

Pray can SELF CULTURE tell me who first employed pigeons to carry messages?

Pigeons have been employed in carrying messages from very early times, though there are differences of opinion as to who first so utilized them. Probably the first on record who employed pigeons in this capacity was Joshua, who, when invading Palestine (in the sixteenth century B. C.), employed them as mediums of communication between headquarters and camps in lands far on the other side of the Jordan. The Chinese are said to have used pigeons to carry messages at even an earlier date than this. The Greek poet, Anacreon, who lived 500 years B. C., mentions the use of pigeons as bearers of epistles. Pliny, the Roman naturalist, speaks of communications being kept up between Hirtius and Decimus Brutus at the siege of Mutina (Modena) by means of pigeons; and there is an instance recorded of their having been employed during the crusade of St. Louis. One writer has recorded the employment of pigeons to carry messages to Mahmoud Malek-al-Adel Nour-Eddin, Sultan of Egypt, in the twelfth century. During the siege of Paris, 150,000 official messages were carried into the city by pigeon post. Carrier pigeons in calm weather fly on an average 1,200 yards a minute; with a moderate breeze in their favor they make 1,500 yards a minute; while with the wind strongly in their favor they attain a speed of 2,000 yards per minute. The record for distance is held by a homing pigeon, in this country, which recently made a journey of 1,040 miles without a stoppage.

I wish to procure a work giving a description of the chief mineral ores that will enable me to classify them at sight. Please name a good one. I also desire to take up assaying in connection with

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my practical studies in metals. Judging from previous experience, I know you can name me a good manual on the subject.

You will require a detailed work on Mineralogy for your studies of the characteristics of different ores. The subject is treated in the Encyclopædia Britannica, under the topic Mineralogy, in Vol. XVI., page 346. The index referring to the various minerals described is found on page 429. You will find further information useful on the subject in Vol. II., page 724, article on Assaying — Vol. XVI., page 57, on Metallurgy. See same volume, page 63, on Metals, and Vol. III., page 838, on the Blowpipe.

These articles in the Encyclopædia, while they are very accurate and complete as far as encyclopædic work requires, are of necessity too condensed to furnish all the necessary material for the systematic study of so large a subject in a connected way. We therefore recommend a good detailed work giving descriptions of metallic ores and their characteristics and conditions under which they are found, how distinguishable from each other, etc., for classification. The following well-known work contains, we think, all that you will require for your studies — Dana's "Descriptive Mineralogy," published by Jno. Wiley & Son, New York, price $12.50. "Rudiments of Mineralogy," by A. Ramsey, jun. (pub. by Lockwood and Son, London (1888), price $1.25), is a work of more elementary character. A very useful work is Hatch's Mineralogy, in Whittaker's "Library of Popular Science," price 90 cents, The Macmillan Co., Publishers, New York.

Most practical works on Assaying treat of the processes of assaying metals as a distinct art and give very little information concerning the ores themselves, or of analytical chemistry. As assaying is a mere mechanical art depending almost entirely on manipulation and knowledge of mixtures such as comes from practice, we think you should have an entirely separate work for that study. Such works as the 'Practical Assayer," by Oliver North (London), or "Practical Assaying," by Mitchell (Wiley & Son, New York), contain easy methods of assaying and do not require the use of expensive apparatus.

Will you kindly give me, in the pages of SELF CULTURE, a general description, indicating the connections and figures, for the wire-winding of a 5-volt (battery) motor?

The process of winding the armature for a small electric motor, such as you describe, contains too many details for us to reproduce here. If you desire to construct a motor to be driven by a current from a battery, and with sufficient power to operate an ordinary foot lathe, sewing machine, electric fan, or any light machinery requiring not over a one-man power, the process of wire-winding is simple enough, especially when you have the tables before you, giving size of wire, spool, etc., and the exact mode of proceeding with each part of the work. But we cannot separate the winding of the armature without referring to the preparation of the wire, the exact rules for fastening the ends, the number of convolutions, layers, and the rule for mounting the armature, etc. The details of the work may be found in technical works on electricity applied to machinery. If you will consult Hopkin's "Experimental Science," published by Munn & Co., N. Y., you will find the process detailed on pages 497–508. The tables for sizes of wire, connections, etc., are given with illustrations, showing the work in the various stages of completion.

I desire to know the letters or names of the notes customarily used in musical notation. Do the first seven letters of the alphabet cover them all?

Yes, the musical alphabet, which serves as the designation of all musical sounds, consists of the seven letters A. B. C. D. E. F. & G., and in German H. in addition. In the natural scale (*i. e.*, the scale without sharps or flats) the order of these letters is as follows: $\frac{1}{C.}$ $\frac{2}{D.}$ $\frac{3}{E.}$ $\frac{4}{F.}$ $\frac{5}{G.}$ $\frac{6}{A.}$ $\frac{7}{B.}$ (or in German $\frac{8}{H.}$), $\frac{8}{C.}$ The sounds represented by those seven letters serve for both voice and instrument. You will find an account of them, under Notation and Scales, in the article on Music, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XVII., page 80. The "C," which is the fundamental key note, is repeated to complete the octave, as above.

Please indicate what is good usage in the expressions — "nobody's else" and "nobody else's." Let me add that I am much interested in the instructive articles that fill the pages of SELF CULTURE monthly, and pleased with the comprehensive manner in which you treat leading questions of the day.

The phrases anybody else, nobody else, somebody else, etc., have a unitary meaning, as if one word, and properly take a possessive case (with the suffix at the end of the phrase): as,

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this is somebody else's hat, nobody else's children act so, etc. Some prefer to treat them, however, simply as elliptical expressions: as, the umbrella is somebody's else (that is, other than the person previously mentioned). But good usage treats them as substantive phrases having the possessive inflection upon the "else."

Thank you for your kind expression of opinion with regard to SELF CULTURE.

Would you please inform me whether there is any gold mining of any consequence in Peru; if so, kindly state where the gold fields are located, and what is the character or kind of mining engaged in. I wish to know, also, what language is chiefly spoken in the country and what the mining imposts are. Similar information concerning gold mining in Bolivia will be appreciated.

We forward you separately by mail some accounts of mining in Peru and Bolivia, upon which you can rely. You will see that in neither of these South American Republics is gold mining an active industry at present, though silver mining is. What the mining imposts are, since the recent revolution in Peru, we cannot now answer, as the war necessitated the Government to farm out to a joint-stock company the taxes and stamps, etc. But if you will communicate with the Bureau of the American Republics at Washington, D. C., you will no doubt be able to discover.

New gold discoveries, we believe, have of recent years been made in the region where Col. Seminario's revolutionary uprising took place—viz., in the department of Loveto, near the boundary of Ecuador. Still more promising mines have also been opened up in Sandia and Carabaya, in the extreme south-eastern part of the Republic of Peru. The silver mines of Peru are mainly in the Cordilleras, while gold is found principally on the eastern slope of the Andes. Hitherto the washings have been only slightly developed. The guano deposits of Peru (from the Chincha islands chiefly) have been the great source of wealth in the Republic.

The chief articles of import in Bolivia are in the hands of Germans mostly, and the principal exportable product is silver, of which in 1894 fifteen million ounces were exported, of the value of thirty-nine million bolivianos. (The boliviano is about equal to the five-franc piece, or the value of our own dollar.) The silver output of the Potosi and Porcos mines would seem almost fabulous. Next after the United States and Mexico, Bolivia has the largest export trade in silver. So far as we know, little productive gold mining is done. Spanish is the language chiefly spoken in the towns of both Republics.

I desire to ascertain, for an essay I am preparing, the sources of information, readily available, respecting the condition of the laboring classes in ancient Rome. You will oblige a constant reader of SELF CULTURE by supplying this information in an early number of the magazine.

You will find many facts for your paper on the working classes among the Ancient Romans in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XX., pages 731–838, in the article on the History of Ancient Rome; also, in Vol. VII., page 671, on Education in Ancient Rome. You will find much material, moreover, in Vol. XXII., page 131–135, in the article on Slavery. The latter shows the condition of the slave and the freedman during the different stages of Roman History. Vol. I., (pages 292–3) treats of agricultural pursuits in Ancient Rome. Under Political Economy, in Vol. XIX., page 350 (The Romans), you will find material concerning the labor laws of Ancient Rome and their effect on the laboring classes.

See also the following references: Gracchus, Vol. XI., 25; XX., 756; XXII., 306. Roman Patrician, Vol. XVIII., 411; XVII., 525; XX., 732, 736; XX., 669. Roman Plebeians, Vol. XVII., 525; XXIII, 558; XX., 670. See also parts of the article on Working Classes, in Vol. XIX., 352.

If you can get access to Gibbon's "Decline & Fall of the Roman Empire," you will find there many details of interest, impossible to give in an Encyclopædic article. In the third volume of Gibbon's History is a chapter on the Freedmen among the Romans, their rank in society, etc. In the first volume you will find a chapter on Slaves among the Romans, with their condition described. Volume II. (Gibbon) contains an account of society among the Romans.

Mommsen's "History of Rome" (4 volumes) also deals largely with the different classes of society in early times, and the progress of the poorer citizens. Guizot's "Civilization in Europe" (Lecture II.), contains many facts pertinent to the subject of Ancient Roman Society.

There are, moreover, good short articles in various periodicals treating of the subject; we mention the following: "North American Review," Vol. 39, page 413, for an article on Slavery in Rome, which traces the condition of

the laboring classes (the slaves did most of the labor), showing that it was the institution of slavery in Rome which crowded the poor freemen out of employment and barred the way to their advancement. "The Westminster Review," Vol. 18, contains an article on The Gracchi, which gives a good account of the condition of the working people in ancient Rome. There is not a little also for your purpose in Plutarch's "Lives of Great Men."

I am desirous of obtaining a clerkship in a railroad, and wish to know what departments there are in which one would find profitable employment. Please state; also say what are the necessary qualifications, and how I should make application. Must I depend upon influence, or upon my qualifications, in seeking a position and in rising to higher and better paid posts?

There is no definite channel by which a young man may advance from a subordinate to a higher position in a railroad corporation. The best positions are too often secured by influence rather than by merit. Clerical positions in offices of railroad companies are usually filled by young men who come recommended by stockholders or members of the corporation, rather than from having worked their way up. The duties of clerks include much monotonous routine labor, and salaries are usually small, as compared with the remuneration received in other employments. We believe that a young man who desires to engage in railroad business can do better for himself if he commences with the regular train service. If his physical frame is strong and general health good, and if he has some natural ability to adapt himself to the work, he need have little fear that in due time he will advance to a higher position and command a better salary than he can by beginning with a clerkship, which has but few opportunities for advancement. As we have said, all desirable positions, where the work is light and the salary good, and where the position is one of any influence, are taken by men having influence with the directors, and to be an under-clerk for long years with a small salary is not desirable for an ambitious youth. In applying for a position, the proper person to see is the local train-master of any of the railroad companies passing through your city. Ask him for the best place he can give you as a beginner. If you purchase a copy of the "Railway Age," published in Chicago (for sale at all news stands), you can read the biographies of any number of men connected with railways in high positions who have commenced their service in the way we describe.

If you desire, however, to become a clerk we may say that the necessary qualifications are about the same for all departments of the service, and are such as may be acquired at any regular business college where young men are trained for office work — a knowledge of Orthography, Arithmetic, Penmanship, Grammar, Letter-writing, Business Forms, and Shorthand and Typewriting. The President, Vice-president, Auditor, General Superintendent, General Manager, and usually the members of the Board of Directors, require the services of clerks. A personal interview with any of these officials is usually the better way to obtain a situation.

I should be glad to know through your interesting magazine something of Osteopathy, what it is, who was its founder, and where the system is taught. Also, please say if I can learn anything of Christian Science in the Encyclopædia Britannica, or to what source can I apply for enlightenment in regard to it.

Osteopathy is one of the many devices of the age, like the massage treatment, for seeking to keep the system in order by manipulation, or by other processes than the use of drugs. It specially addresses itself to the relief of nervous disorders. The curative influence is localized and applied directly to the part affected and to the nerves which pass through it. It deals, we believe, first and chiefly with the centres of nervous force. Dr. A. T. Still, of Kirksville, Adair Co., Mo., is, we are told, the discoverer and founder of Osteopathy, of which there is a school in the Auditorium Building, Chicago, conducted by Dr. Sullivan Howell. By applying to him you can learn, no doubt, further on the subject.

The theory on which the science of Osteopathy is founded is that if every part of the bony structure is in place and the passage of the nerves and blood vessels is unobstructed, so that each part of the mechanism is receiving its proper nerve and blood supply, the machine will perform its work and we have the condition known as health; which should continue until the mechanism is worn out by natural processes.

On the other hand, if any part of the framework or its muscular attachments become dislocated or misplaced so that a pressure is put on a nerve, or a blood vessel is partially or fully obstructed, the condition known as disease will make its appearance in that part of the structure supplied or drained by the nerves or blood vessels involved.

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The Osteopath looks on the latter condition as the result of a mechanical defect, and experience has demonstrated that armed with a comprehensive knowledge of the anatomy of the structure, and a close acquaintance with the physiological manifestations of disease, he is enabled to trace effects to their causes and remove them without the use of any of the poisonous drugs that are so freely used in the practice of medicine.

With reference to Christian Science, you will find in the Encyclopædia Britannica under the following heads the underlying principles of the school: Theosophy, Vol. XXIII., p. 278; Swedenborg, Vol. XXII., p. 759; and Kabbalah, Vol. XIII., p. 810. It is to be said, however, that the pseudo-science is not treated in any of these articles as applied to the divine healing of the sick. For the latter we must refer you to the discoverer and founder of Christian Science, Rev. Mary Baker Eddy, who may be addressed at the Massachusetts Metaphysical College, Boston, Massachusetts.

Is there any difference between bar-tin and grain-tin? If so, where can grain-tin be procured? In case the latter is difficult to be obtained, can bar-tin be substituted for grain-tin in the preparation of electrical amalgam?

There is practically no difference between bar-tin and grain-tin. The difference in the name comes from the way it is put up for the market. Either can be used in amalgamating zinc for electrical purposes, but the grain-tin is generally used, since it is ready prepared to mix with the acids, and the measurements are more easily understood. Prepared grain-tin may be purchased at any good chemical store.

I have not caught the gold fever, but I desire to seek employment in some of the towns near to or on the way to Alaska, where labor in many departments may be scarce, and from which I might set out in the spring for the gold-fields, if deemed advisable. I, however, labor under the disadvantage of not knowing the region and should esteem it a favor if you would give me your advice in the matter. Please state the distance from Victoria to Dawson City.

We doubt that we can, with any advantage to you, advise you to proceed at present to any of the towns on the Pacific, that would bring you within measurable distance of the Klondyke gold-fields, and give you reasonable prospect of employment during the approaching winter. There must be many, like yourself, who are now crowding the towns of Seattle and Tacoma in Washington, and Victoria and Vancouver in British Columbia, with the view of remaining there over winter and starting for the Yukon with the opening of spring. These places are, we believe, already crowded with prospective gold-seekers, who are meantime in want of employment. To go nearer to the gold region,—to Juneau, Sitka, Dyea, or to the towns at the mouth of the Yukon, on Norton Sound,—would be to remove you further from contact with civilization and increase the probable discomfort and possible distress of the coming winter, while the chance of employment in these far-off places would obviously be less.

We can only counsel discretion, suggest your consulting a map of the Alaskan territory, and refer you to any of the numerous books and brochures on the gold-fields which are now published, and which no doubt you can procure in your vicinity.

The distance, approximately, from Victoria, B. C., to Dawson City (N. W. T.) by way of Juneau, Dyea and the White Pass, etc., is 1,300 miles. See, incidentally, the editorial on the Klondyke, in the September number of SELF CULTURE.

Kindly inform me in your worthy SELF CULTURE what is the proper spelling of the inflected forms of such words as travel, revel, etc. I was taught to double the last consonant, and hence spell travelling and revelling with the double "l." This is the usage, I note, throughout the Encyclopædia Britannica, though our American newspapers do not adhere, to any extent, to this rule.

There is no hard-and-fast rule observed in this country as to the spelling of the words you quote, though the tendency nowadays appears to be going back to English usage. See the editorial in SELF CULTURE for August, 1896, on "Innovations in Spelling a Literary Offence." Conservative usage and regard for the old forms of spelling our mother tongue, we repeat, are influencing the better class of writers and educators, though newspaper men are slow to conform, being always in such a hurry with their work, and the journals of the day are, in this respect, not to be taken as models. You will be in good company, be assured, by sticking to the Britannica spellings and doubling the consonants.

Kindly inform a reader of your magazine on the following points:

1. Why are not windmills used for

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the purpose of generating electricity in conjunction with storage batteries?

2. Have there ever been any automatic governors invented for windmills, and what are they?

3. What is the ordinary life of a storage battery?

4. What would be the best way to obtain an elementary course of steam engineering, the student being employed during the day?

(1) Windmills are not satisfactorily used for the operation of generators to be used for the purpose of charging a storage battery, owing to the fact that the electro-motive force of the charging current must at all times exceed the electro-motive force of the battery; the electro-motive force of an electric generator is determined by the speed at which it rotates, and should the speed fall below such point as would generate an electro-motive force less than that of the battery, the battery would discharge back into the generator and make a motor of it or burn it out. (2) Automatic governors have been constructed for this purpose, but are quite complicated and not a marketable article. (3) The life of a storage battery is determined largely by its original construction and manner of use; under favorable conditions, it should last for many years. (4) The best way to obtain an elementary course of Steam Engineering, under the conditions noted, is through some of the Correspondence Schools of Technology. Write E. P. Roberts & Co., Cleveland, O.

Please inform me of the simplest and most economical way of estimating the cost and planning a building for Electric Lighting. Also the proper way to figure Resistance Coils. I have an alternating fan 52 volts—60 cycles (what do they mean by cycles?); how much wire and what size should I have to add in the series with my fan to run on a 1.10 volt circuit? State also if it can be easily made to run on a continuous current, say 1.10 volt.

(1) It is impossible for us to submit to you plans for a building for an Electric Lighting plant. The operations of any lighting system are not usually carried out in one building, but have several parts located wherever most desirable or convenient. Where the storage battery is used, the buildings consist of a central generating station, containing also the boilers and engines and all the apparatus used in controlling and governing the distribution of the electric current. From this point the charging circuits lead to the buildings containing the storage batteries, which may be located at any convenient distance from the generating station. There are also buildings for switches, indicators, meters and safety devices for controlling the charge and discharge of the storage cells, from which points are carried the conductors which distribute the electric energy, wherever needed.

Munn and Company, 361 Broadway, N. Y., issue a catalogue containing plans for buildings suitable for various kinds of machinery, and no doubt you will find a practicable plan for such a building as you desire. The catalogue may be had through subscribing for the "Scientific American," or perhaps may be had by those who are not subscribers. Write to Munn & Co., and state what sort of a building you wish plans for.

(2) The simplest device for measuring resistance is by means of the galvanometer in connection with the Wheatstone bridge. Any galvanometer may be used in connection with the bridge and the measurements are accurate. The principles of the apparatus and directions for measuring are attached to the instrument, which may be purchased at any electrical supply house.

(3) The term cycles refers to the number of alternations which the fan makes in each minute. Each time the fan reverses the direction of its revolutions is a cycle. In your fan it is 60 reverses each minute.

(4) An alternating current fan cannot be made to run on a continuous current. You can change the voltage of the circuit by using a finer wire making a greater number of convolutions, but there are other alterations which would be necessary also. Write to the Central Electric Supply Company, 172 Adams St., Chicago, for any information you desire concerning the changes you wish to make in your fan. Send stamps for reply, and you may mention SELF CULTURE as having made you this suggestion. Inquire also for a table of sizes of wire for windings.

Would you kindly give me some points, *pro* and *con*, the annexation of Cuba, if the subject is not now a tabooed one with SELF CULTURE?

The following arguments are offered for and against the annexation of the island of Cuba.

Affirmative: Cuba should be annexed as a part of the United States because geographically she belongs to us, and this nation should assume the right to seize upon whatever land in the western hemisphere that is needful for her development. The United States should not

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wait for more bloodshed in the sanguinary and spasmodic efforts of Cuba to become independent. We should offer Spain a fair price, if she will consent to sell, with the understanding that a refusal means confiscation by us, a rule which should be enforced for the benefit of all concerned.

Cuba can cut no figure in the world as an independent nation, but as an integral part of the United States she is the gateway of our commerce, east and west, and north and south. She is the half-way station to South America, and from Cuban shores that southern continent at once becomes the customer at our shops. She is the guardian of the Gulf of Mexico and would be a guarantee of our peaceful ownership and control of the Nicaragua Canal. The objection to her population is a thing possible to overcome. Cuba can be Americanized with as much success as has attended the Americanization of the ignorant and foreign population of California and Texas.

The United States should use every legitimate means to bring about the annexation of the island, because her near position to this country makes her commercially and politically invaluable to us. Her mineral resources have not yet been tapped; and her climate is unexcelled in its beauty, its variety and its capacity to contribute to the comfort and happiness of its people. Her other resources are well-nigh boundless, and rich as this country is, the little island would be an appreciable material gain to it. The sanitary condition of the island under Spain, and especially the harbor at Havana, is a constant menace to the health of this country, and our commerce is carried on at the constant peril of yellow fever and other contagious diseases. It should, therefore, be owned by this country and made thoroughly safe in this respect.

The freedom of Cuba, with annexation to the United States, would signify an uplifting of the population of the island and the amelioration and betterment of the masses; while incorporation with the Union would bring a great advance of civilization and progress.

Negative: Indiscriminate annexation of territory cannot be advantageous to this country. It is properly deemed a high privilege to be admitted into the Union, and the honor should not merely be extended to communities that desire incorporation but to those that worthily deserve it. Nor should additions to our territory be made without passing a sufficient term of probation. Texas went through the probationary period and became a state in the Union only after she had established her independence and showed herself capable of defense and self-government.

It is not a wise policy for the United States to acquire territory in the tropics or in islands distant from our shores. We have as much territory as we can well administer already. The character of the people of Cuba, with their hot-blooded nature, and their reactionary traditions, is wholly dissimilar to ours, and they are consequently not likely to mingle congenially with our population or conform to our customs. The advantage to our shipping interests gained by annexation would be counterbalanced by the disadvantages which would grow out of extending our administration so as to include the island. At present we really gain all the advantage that is desirable by our proximity to Cuba through existing trade relations, and annexation would bring us into too close contact and probably into conflict with all other South American governments. During turbulent periods, which are of frequent occurrence, Cuba would be sure to involve us in its struggles and create complications which would be a source of weakness to our Government.

Until we have a dearth of trouble at home it would seem that we need not search for it abroad. As long as another nation is willing to try to govern the island, while we practically control the commercial interests and trade, it would seem as if the United States had the milk and Spain the shell of the cocoanut. Another consideration is, that we are not sure that our institutions were ever intended to or could stand the strain of colonial administration.

Popular government is only fit for a people capable of enjoying and making proper use of their freedom, and those who appreciate fully the difficulty of the problems we have already on hand, should not, we think, deem it advisable to add to them an experiment in self-government with such an ill-assorted population as is that of Cuba. Those who know Cuba best think that, if annexed, Cubans would long remain a non-assimilated portion of our people.

I am interested in a debate on a Resolution affirming that the Electoral College of the United States should be abolished, and I should be greatly indebted to you if you would furnish me with points to sustain the affirmative side, and suggest a substitute in the event of the College being done away with.

(1) At the present day the American people are confronted with the fact that the weakest point in their whole plan of government is the mode of choosing the President.

(2) The Electoral College system of electing a President is contrary to the principles of

American institutions and defeats the purpose of the framers of the Constitution.

(3) The glaring contrast between the Electoral College as an existing institution and the Electoral College as it was originally intended to be, is grotesque and almost ludicrous. Alexander Hamilton gave as his reasons why this excellent method of election was adopted by the framers of the Constitution was that the College, as forecast by Hamilton, was to be "a body of capable and distinguished men, well known in their several States, above suspicion of corruption and intrigue, and most capable of analyzing the qualities adapted to the station of President, and acting under circumstances favorable to deliberation, and to judicious combination of all the reasons and inducements that were proper to govern their choice. The method was better than popular election, because it would afford, it was thought, as little opportunity as possible for tumult and disorder, and expose the electors much less to the heat and ferment that might be communicated to them by the people. Had the election of President been made to depend upon pre-existing bodies of men, these might be tampered with beforehand"— these were the words of Hamilton before the experiment had been put into practice.

(4) Its framers intended and supposed they had provided that the President should be selected as well as voted for by the electors. The function of the people was to elect the electors, not the President. The Electoral College upon that theory was an important one. Its members chose a President as the State legislator chose senators.

(5) As it is, the Electoral College is not a deliberative body, and its members do not exercise an independent choice, but simply act as messengers to carry votes for a candidate to whom they were pledged beforehand, and from whom they are, under no circumstances, at liberty to withdraw.

(6) The Electoral College system gives a preponderating influence to the States having the largest population. The vote of New York is essential to the election of any candidate. It does not express the popular vote or the will of the majority.

(7) The vote of the Electoral College has varied as much as forty per cent. from the popular vote, and in case the election is thrown into the house a few important States are able to decide the result.

This pledging of electors gives rise to great evils. It lessens political interests in "sure States," and tends to perpetuate existing chronic complaints — the Solid South, etc. Besides the importance of carrying larger doubtful States gives rise to much fraud and corruption.

As a remedy we might suggest:

A direct popular vote, or a modification of the duties of the Electoral College, more in accordance with the intentions of the original framers of the Constitution of the United States.

Have the kindness to give me some points that will enable me to prepare an essay on "The Western Pioneer." A brief outline will suffice, with a citation of the writers who have treated the subject and a reference to early pioneers.

In discussing the subject—"The Western Pioneer," it would be well to speak at the outset, of the work done by the three great rival powers in civilizing our continent—the Spaniards, the French, and the English. Each of these nations attempted to gain possession of as much as possible of this Western Continent. The story of their activities is one of absorbing interest; while in their achievements is manifested the victory of the Anglo-Saxon over the Latin race — the result in this country being the supremacy of the English-Americans or citizens of the United States.

These three nations had in turn succeeded in pushing their way to many sections of this great country. De Soto explored the South and left the footprints of his band on its broad plains and on the banks of its mighty river. Ponce de Leon discovered Florida, and Balboa penetrated to the Pacific Ocean. Le Caron, the French Jesuit, explored the North and blazed his way through the interminable forests which border the Great Lakes. La Salle, Joliet, and Marquette, nearly a hundred years later, penetrated the northwestern wilds, and, finding the source of the Mississippi, they followed its windings, passing through what are now the States of Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, Arkansas, and Mississippi. Subsequently, Captains Meriwether, Lewis and William Clark ascended the Missouri River to seek its sources, and, finding them in the Rocky Mountains, they scaled those mighty barriers, reached the Columbia River, and, embarking on its waters, probed the utmost limits of the West. These and others of the French and English nations were the pioneer explorers of the West, but though we mention them incidentally they are not the real "Western Pioneers" who wrestled with nature and established civilization in the western forests of this country. The great battlefield extended from the Alleghany Mountains on the East to the Mississippi River on the West and from the long chain of lakes on the North to near the Tennessee River on the South.

At the beginning of the second half of the 18th century, about 1750, this vast section was virtually in the possession of savages. The extensive domains claimed by the Red Man were alike a moral and a physical wilderness. There were no manifestations of civilization, and no institutions of Christianity. The Indian occupants of this great territory had been conquered and the ownership of the soil asserted, respectively, by France, England, and the United States. Moreover they had ceded much of it, by treaty stipulations, to their conquerors. Notwithstanding this fact, the savages disregarded their obligations and maintained a hostile attitude toward the white settlers, and continued to plunder the frontiersman, carry off women and children into captivity, and often to commit murder.

This condition of affairs could not long be suffered to exist. This great domain must be dedicated to civilization and to freedom, and the safety of the white population of the land assured. It is to the "Pioneer Fathers" of our country that we are indebted for the achievement. The Government set to work to survey these Western lands (which had been secured by treaty), and invited purchasers and occupants to emigrate from the Eastern States, pledging to them protection and security for their lives and property. These "Western Pioneers" thus came face to face with the Indians. The contest between them was long and bloody, and as we now know to our great advantage, for the victory was complete. Those who became pioneer settlers of the Great West, lived east of, and many of them not remote from, the Alleghany Mountains, in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and other States, and there they cultivated farms, erected school houses and churches, and gradually developed a vigorous and ennobling type of American civilization. When independence was achieved after the peace of 1783, all this great block of wilderness country into which emigration was setting became one political division, under the name of the Northwest Territory.

No ordinary men were those brave-hearted pioneers who wrested from wild nature and from the untamed savages the fair heritage of fruitful fields, with golden harvests, which has been transmitted to us. Most of our early Western settlements were subject to grave perils as the settlers themselves were subject to ceaseless toil. But the Pioneers were courageous, of necessity, and the conditions upon which alone they could maintain their existence and supremacy on the frontiers were such as to call into exercise all that was heroic in their nature, as well as other high and enduring qualities. The circumstances surrounding them could not fail to bring out the better elements of their character, and develop a robust, self-reliant, vigorous life. A sense of mutual dependence for their common security, and for the accomplishment of their necessary labors, tended to unite them together in friendship and neighborly kindness. They were compelled by the necessities of their situation to know a little of everything and to do almost anything, and hence they developed their faculties in all directions. They adapted themselves, to a remarkable extent, to all the diversified conditions of life in the wilderness. Sports and popular amusements were indulged in as a means of bringing the people together. Thus it was that the Pioneers who established civilized society in the Western forests of America developed a distinct type of a race of men which are now almost extinct. Some were hardened by the experiences drawn from the vicissitudes of frontier life, into the bone of a self-asserting Americanism of the "Dave" Crockett school. Others, more venturesome, settling in Western Missouri, became typical American borderers, rude of manner and speech, scarcely touched by the refining influences of the older East, though generous and hospitable to a fault.

Prominent among our many Pioneer-Soldier-Statesmen who were intimately identified with the West are, Generals George Rogers Clark, William Clark, Andrew Lewis, Shelby, Scott, Duncan, McArthur, Anthony Wayne, William H. Harrison, Lewis Cass, Andrew Jackson; Governors St. Clair, Worthington, Meigs and Morrow; Judges Symmes, Putnam and Sibley; Henry Clay, and such soldiers as Col. Daniel Boone, Col. John Hardin, Col. Benj. Logan, Gen. Simon Kenton, and numerous others.

Much material can be found bearing on this subject in Cooper's "Leather Stocking Tales," and in his narrative novels, "The Pioneers" and "The Pathfinders." See also "The Making of the Great West," by Samuel Adams Drake, published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. See also "The American Historical Record," Vol. II., page 363, article "The Pioneers of the Great West."

The best material concerning the actual activities of the Pioneers and their labors, in building, in agricultural pursuits, in feats of engineering, in warfare with the Indians, emigration farther west, social progress, etc., etc., will be found in the work mentioned above, "The Making of the Great West," by Samuel Drake.

See, also, for a detailed account of the progress of social life, churches, schools, domestic life, etc., "The Pioneers of the West" by W. P. Streikland, published by Carleton and Phillips, New York.

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NEW INFORMATION NOTES

The gold production of 1897 is likely to exceed that of 1896, which was the largest in the history of the world. Advices from Eucador show that mines being developed there are reported richer and more extensive than those of South Africa, where such enormous quantities of gold have recently been produced.

It is announced that the Carnegie Steel Co. has received a foreign order for 200,000 tons of steel rails, one-half of this immense tonnage being for the Great Northern Railway of England; 50,000 tons for the Chinese government, and 50,000 tons for Russia.

A New York contemporary says that the national government is building a new ten-inch wire gun for coast defense that will astonish the world. It will weigh thirty tons and hurl a 600-pound shell with a muzzle velocity of 2,988 feet per second. It will be wrapped with seventy-five miles of wire weighing 30,948 pounds.

To remove rust from iron the object is allowed to stand immersed in a nearly saturated solution of stannic chloride for a period of from 12 to 24 hours, avoiding the formation of an excess of acid in the bath, otherwise the iron will be attacked. After the removal of the rust, the sample is washed with water containing ammonia and quickly dried.

Canadian exports for the fiscal year ending June 30 are estimated at $133,500,000, an increase of nearly $12,000,000 over the previous year. Imports were $111,231,000, or $600,000 in excess of the previous year. The export trade is the largest Canada has ever enjoyed. In that respect her trade conditions are similar to those of the United States. So, too, she has prospects this year of an unusually large wheat crop, not only from Manitoba and the Northwest, but from the Ontario Province.

China is by no means unlikely to be the next place where the gold fever will break out. It is known that there are large deposits of the precious metal in the Celestial Empire, and when the Special Ambassador of the Chinese government was recently passing through Canada on his way to the jubilee celebrations he applied to the authorities of the Dominion for information regarding its laws relating to mining, as well as the methods adopted. The reason for seeking this information, which is now being prepared, was conveyed by the Ambassador, who said that the Chinese authorities intend to give a good deal of attention to the development of the mining industry. The people who desire to be in the forefront of the movement had better, perhaps, consider the advisability of taking tickets to Hong Kong rather than to Klondyke.

It is understood that the East Indian order for 7,600 tons of steel rails, taken some time ago by the Maryland Steel Company, has now been increased by 1,250 tons. This is of peculiar interest to British rail-makers, seeing that the specifications are so rigid, that there was a general impression that the American houses would not be able to comply with them. It is stated that about 70,000 tons of American steel rails will be exported this year, 40,000 tons going to Japan, where the rails are said to be liked better than English rails.

A contract has just been closed for twenty-five miles of railroad in Corea, from Seoul to Chemulpo, the rails for which are to be made by the Illinois Steel Company. This will take about 2,500 tons of rails, and the order, it is said, may be increased considerably later. The Universal Construction Company, whose offices are in the Rookery, Chicago, have taken the contract for the bridge, 1,650 feet long on the line of this railroad over the Hau River. All the material for the bridge will be rolled by the Illinois Steel Company.

At the Royal Institution, London, says the *Scientific American*, Lord Kelvin recently gave a most important lecture. He began by showing an experiment which conclusively proved Volta's theory that, when a zinc plate and a copper plate were put in contact, one became charged with positive electricity and the other with negative. Although he had shown this experiment fifty years ago at Glasgow University, yet an immense amount of ingenuity had been wasted recently in trying to explain away this phenomenon. He considered that Volta was absolutely right and made an appeal to physicists to study Volta's work seriously.

A very interesting and novel experiment was shown. A plate of uranium was connected to one terminal of an electrometer, and was then touched by a plate of aluminum. It was seen by the deflection of the spot of light that the uranium plate became at first positively electrified; it then gradually lost its charge and became negatively electrified. Lord Kelvin could suggest no explanation of this very mysterious experiment.

Another interesting topic touched upon was Becquerel's discovery of the radiation given off by uranium. This radiation is very feeble, but photographs of coins, etc., taken by its means were thrown on a screen. He stated that it had been conclusively proved that this radiation was not due to phosphorescence, or the slow radiation of light previously absorbed, yet he could give no explanation of it.

The highest United States immigration record, excluding the arrivals of aliens not so classed, is that of 1882, when the prodigious number of 788,992 came, following the previous year's 669,431, till then unprecedented. In 1883 there was a heavy falling off to 603,322, and the decrease went on until 334, 203 was reached in 1886. Then the tide again turned, and with some variations another climax was reached in 1892, when the figures were 623,084, the third highest mark, and not far behind that of 1881. But then began another ebb, with 502,917 in 1893, followed by 314,467, then by 279,948, then by 343,267, and now this year by an astonishing reduction to 230,832, as shown by a special bulletin of the treasury department.

Dr. Judson Deland, of Philadelphia, has invented an instrument for counting blood corpuscles. It works on the centrifugal force principle, and accomplishes the measurement

by means of comparative bulks. A quantity of blood is placed in a finely graduated tube and the latter revolved at a speed of about 1,000 revolutions a minute. The corpuscles divide by force of gravity and form on the side of the tube in easily traceable divisions of red corpuscles, white corpuscles, and serum. The new method permits of larger, and, consequently more representative, quantitatives being used in experimenting, besides doing away with actual microscopic counting.

That the water of the sea contains gold, among other metals, is perhaps well known. According to Tout Savoir, quoted by the "Revue Scientifique," which gives a summary of the data that have been obtained in regard to this subject, Sondstadt, in 1872, reached the conclusion (confirmed more recently by Munster) that the "briny deep" contains about one grain of this metal to the ton of water. One grain is not much, but this figure has its value when we take into consideration the immense extent of the oceans, which, as a whole, would, at this estimate, contain a total of 10,250,000,000 tons of gold. This latter is found in the state of iodide, and the iodide that enters into the combination would amount to something like 4,428,800,000,000 tons.

A project for utilizing the immense water power at Richmond, Va., for the production of electricity in now assuming definite shape. It is believed that when the enterprise is established it will do more for the material development of Richmond than all the other enterprises attempted. There is more than 10,000 undeveloped horse-power in the James River at this point, which, if converted into electric power, would be of great benefit, not only to present manufacturers, but would also tend to bring other manufacturers to the city.

The celebration of the invention of the electric motor car was held on July 26, at Eliott, Me., in connection with the summer meeting of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers. The celebration was in honor of Prof. Moses G. Farmer, who on July 26, 1847, exhibited in Dover, N. H., what was considered the first electric car. The exercises included an interesting exhibit of early apparatus, and addresses were delivered.

The results of some recent researches on the direct union of carbon and iron at a high temperature have been communicated by the author, M. Moisan, to the French Academy of Sciences. He states that when pure iron and carbon are melted together in an electric furnace and allowed to cool slowly, the metal is found to contain only a very small quantity of combined carbon, a gray pig iron being obtained that solidifies at 1,150° C. By suddenly cooling in water iron saturated with carbon at 3,000°, the metal became crystalline in structure, and from it were separated brilliant crystals of the carbide of iron, identical with that occurring in steel. Though this was one of the first metallic carbides known, it has proved the last to be prepared in quantity by direct synthesis.

The University of California has $4,000,000 already pledged for its support, and asks architects to compete for the plans for the new buildings, and a jury of famous architects has been secured to pass upon the plans. The jury is to meet at Antwerp as soon as the plans are completed. The competition is to be international. An advisory board has been selected to fix upon such location as will best suit the landscape.

At the Otis Steel Works, Cleveland, Ohio, August 4th last, the casting of a smooth bore gun on the methods suggested by Dr. R. J. Gatling, of Hartford, Conn., inventor of the Gatling gun, was successfully performed. The government thought so well of Dr. Gatling's method that Congress appropriated $40,000 for the test. The casting weighed 30 tons and the gun, when completed, will weigh 16 tons and will carry a 400-pound projectile.

Some men there are who bathe in the open, year in and year out, and many more who every morning plunge into cold water under the somewhat tempering shelter of their own roof-tree. For the most part, such folk doubtless thrive and remain vigorous, but then it must be borne in mind that only the robust would brave such Spartan discipline. But what has medicine to say on so important a point of every-day life? So far as we know, there is no authoritatively and generally-accepted dogma on the point. That which braces up the nerve-centres and circulation of the strong man might be full of danger to the weakling. So, too, with age; as the elasticity of the arteries decreases with the lapse of years, by just so much increases the risk of a sudden strain upon the capacity of the blood-distributing system. The chief test of fitness for the cold bath is the individual power of establishing reaction; in other words, of getting the delightful after-glow and warmth of the skin that should follow vigorous "towelling." Yet, many people who seldom or never take a bath are, like our ancestors, healthy and long-lived. In spite of that negative evidence, however, we would advise a morning tub to all, cold for those who can stand it, tepid for weaker and less resolute brethren, and warm for the aged. But even this general indication must be carefully modified to suit particular cases.

The pension roll of the United States has almost reached the million mark. Commissioner Evans has just issued a statement showing that at the beginning of the fiscal year the pensioners numbered just 983,528, an increase of 12,850 for last year. During that year 50,101 new pensions were granted and 3,971 persons were restored to the rolls. Old age and disease, however, are working great inroads into the lists, for there were 31,960 deaths during the year. Other sources of loss were 1,074 from remarriage of widows, 1,845 orphans attained majority, 2,683 failures to claim pensions, and 3,560 losses from unrecorded causes.

For centuries it has been known that change of air is one of the most valuable therapeutic agents, useful not only for the actual cure of certain diseases, such as phthisis, asthma, intermittent fever, whooping cough, and hay fever, but also for the promotion of convalescence from an exhausting illness. Much ingenuity has been exercised in explaining how this change of air operates for good, but a really satisfactory way of accounting for all of the

phenomena involved is still lacking. Medical men are undoubtedly easily satisfied when it comes to the matter of furnishing explanations for things, and are seldom inclined to insist upon too rigid an application of logical tests; for in dealing with diseases and their remedies they come into contact with so much more of the unknown than of the known, that, not being philosophically inclined, they become accustomed to accepting facts without insisting upon accompanying explanations.

Physicians occasionally use, for the purpose of illuminating parts of the interior of the body, a delicate electric lamp, called the "pea-lamp," because its little glass bulb resembles a small pea in size, being only one-quarter of an inch in diameter. It is nevertheless a complete incandescent lamp, having a carbon film one-eighth of an inch long and about $\frac{1}{1000}$th of an inch in diameter.

Now that the patents have been secured, Mr. W. H. Preece., C.B., F.R.S., has given particulars of Marconi's wireless telegraph. It is based on the principle of sending waves through the luminiferous ether by means of electric sparks. The sparking takes place between metal balls, which are connected to an induction coil, after a method devised by Professor Righi, following the classical experiments of Herz. Electric waves are set up in the ether by the spark as ripples are produced by dropping a stone into a pond; these travel with the speed of light, and can be reflected or projected in the manner of light. It is easy to see how the generation of these waves in the ether can be controlled by making or breaking the electric current in the induction coil, which yields the sparks, according to the Morse code of signals; but how are the waves caused to show these signals at a distant place? It has been found that loose metal dust coheres when such waves pass through it, and by cohering it becomes a better conductor of the electric current. If the dust be included in the circuit of a battery and a Morse telegraph instrument, the arrangement can be so adjusted that the instrument will give a signal whenever an etheric wave passes through the dust. Such in principle is the telegraph of Marconi.

The treatment of ambergris for commercial purposes is a simple process. Ambergris is insoluble in water fresh or salt; but pure alcohol is found to attack it, to facilitate which it is ground with sand, which has the effect of presenting to the solvent a greater surface to work upon. Even under these favorable conditions the process takes four months, after which the solution is ready for use by perfumers, who find it invaluable for intensifying and perpetuating the scents of various essential oils with which it is mixed. It is when pounding it that the presence of numbers of cuttle fish beaks is revealed and they are now recognized as the probable cause of the secretion being voided by the whale. Formerly it was regarded as frozen seafoam.

Take coal-tar two parts and coal-oil and grease one part each and mix with a small amount of carbolic acid. Apply with a cloth by moistening the hair and horns of the animal with the liquid. In the applications include the feet and legs, and it will drive every fly away and one application will last ten days or more in dry weather. Apply as often as necessary, and your cows will be entirely secure from flies of all kinds. Any kind of old lard or grease can be used. Coal-tar is the base of this remedy; when too thick to spread well use more coal-oil, and when too thin to adhere well, use more coal-tar. This remedy is equally effective as a lice-exterminator on poultry, and is used simply by painting the sides of the hennery and roosts and dropping-boards with the liquid. For young chickens, saturate a cloth and place in the bottom of a box, and place the mother and young chickens in the box for an hour or so.

There are few of us who know how best to take care of an umbrella. Here are a few simple rules:

Do not let it dry while opened, as this strains the silk and makes holes at the seams. Do not place it to dry with the handle up. In this case the moisture lodges in the centre, where the ribs meet, causing the silk to decay. Never put it in the wardrobe without unrolling it, or after a long period of dry weather you may have the misfortune of finding that the continuance of the pressure has cut the silk between each rib. If you are satisfied for the present with your umbrella, and are not anxious to be obliged to purchase a new one, see that it drips on end with the handle down, unless the handle is valuable and easily injured by damp. Such an umbrella cannot be cared for according to any fixed rules.

As most people know, some of our most valuable old manuscripts, especially Bible manuscripts, have come from Abyssinia. How many more rich finds may yet come out of that region one can only surmise. It is interesting to learn, from a Spanish source, that "at the time of the Mohammedan invasion of Ethiopia, in the sixteenth century, the Abyssinians placed all their Ethiopian manuscripts in Debra-Tabor, one of the islands on Lake Tana, and here they remained carefully guarded by the inhabitants, who looked upon the books as tutelary deities. Not long ago the Negus sent an expedition to conquer these holy islands, and has built in his capital, Addis-Abeba, a library for the reception of the manuscripts thus recovered. In ancient times Ethiopia was a great centre of learning, and some of these manuscripts have doubtless extreme value."

The King of Greece, whose income is only $200,000 a year, has offered to give up part of this to pay the war indemnity. Compared with other crowned persons, he can ill afford to do so. The Sultan has about $13,000,000, and can raise a good-sized army at his own expense. The German Emperor, as such, has no income, his civil list as King of Prussia being about $1,000,000. His private fortune is small, and there is no special grant for the princes of his house. The Emperor of Austria is much richer, and his civil list is much larger. Italy's King has to be satisfied with $500,000. The richest is probably the Czar of Russia, who has unrestricted command over the finances of his empire, although he is satisfied with a civil list of $1,000,000 and the $4,000,000 income from private sources. The demands upon the purses of these rulers are nevertheless so great that few of them are able to put anything aside.

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THE WORLD OF THOUGHT:

ABOUT BOOKS AND THEIR AUTHORS

Sir W. Besant's Victorian Retrospect

SIR WALTER BESANT'S commemorative volume, on the sixty years of "The Queen's Reign,"* issued by the London branch of The Werner Company, Publishers, has been received by SELF CULTURE. The work, it will be seen by our advertising pages, is on sale at the headquarters of the publishing house, at Akron, O., and at the New York and Chicago salerooms of the company. Like other sumptuous productions of the House — notably, "Beautiful Britain," and the elaborate "Bismarck Memorial" folio volume,— the present work, giving a retrospect by the distinguished *littérateur* and novelist, Sir Walter Besant, of the Victorian Reign, with a picturesque narrative of the great Jubilee celebration in London on the 20th of June last, is an elegant and artistic volume. The richly emblazoned cover of the book, with its bright array of crowns and heraldic quarterings, fittingly invites the reader to the literary and pictorial delights within. The illustrations which embellish the work, including portraits, copies of historical paintings, representative royal family groups, and the scenes connected with the Jubilee pageants, are admirable throughout. Not only are these embellishments attractive in themselves, they are also valuable as historic souvenirs of a great reign.

Of the literary characteristics of the volume, our readers have had an opportunity of judging, from the chapters selected from the work which appeared in recent issues of SELF CULTURE. Sir Walter Besant has written instructively as well as entertainingly, and has presented many interesting contrasts, social, political and industrial, between the England of Her Majesty's girlhood and the England of to-day. In most of its features the retrospect is a remarkable one, as it indicates the great material advancement of the nation within the past sixty years, and recalls vividly to the reader the intellectual and social transformation that has taken place in an era of beneficent achievement and phenomenal progress. No part of the story, perhaps, is of higher interest than that which impresses upon the reader, what is peculiar in the case of the British nation,— the fact that progress has been coincident with permanence, and that loyalty to a ruler can co-exist with the freedom of the ruled. It is this, among a loyal as well as a conservative people like the English, that has made the sovereign the object of so much affection and reverence, and welded the many and conglomerate peoples under British rule into one vast and well-consolidated Empire. Another lesson to be learned is this, "that the diffusion of wealth in the British Isles is not incompatible with its accumulation, and that the welfare of the few and the many advance together."

There is much, also, in the career and character of Queen Victoria — as one sees from a close reading of Sir Walter Besant's work — to explain the intensity of respect and admiration for the sovereign on the part of a grateful nation. We refer not only to the influence of the Queen, as a correct-living and high-principled woman, in raising the tone of the nation; but to the influence she has silently exercised on public manners and domestic life throughout the Kingdom, though other causes, no doubt, have co-operated with the royal influence in bringing about the change. During the reign, while wealth has become more and more a social force, its accumulation and influence have had no debasing effect upon the Court, life at which, under Victoria, has been at once simple, unostentatious, and scrupulously, almost austerely, moral. Nor, constitutionally considered, has there been anything in the Queen's actions, temper or bearing throughout her long reign to cause the nation a moment's misgiving or uneasiness. Charles James Fox characterized the influence of George III. on the politics of his reign as "the undetected agency of an infernal spirit." Not even the most flippant Radical in England to-day would ever dream of applying to Queen Victoria anything a hundredth part as foul or harsh.

* "The Queen's Reign and its Commemoration: a Literary and Pictorial Review of the Period — the Story of the Victorian Transformation, 1837–1897." By Sir Walter Besant. Imp. 4to cloth. The Werner Company, London.

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The New Britannica Supplement

The Werner Company, of Akron, O., New York and Chicago, have just completed and put on the market a publication of almost unexampled utility — a five-volume supplement to the ninth edition, issued also by the firm, of that monumental reference work — the Encyclopædia Britannica. The need has long been recognized of an addition, down to date, on the lines of the original work though not with the same exhaustiveness, to the great encyclopædia of the English-speaking world, and of an extension of the matter in the Britannica which should include biographies of eminent living personages, modernize the history, and incorporate the results of recent scientific research and discovery. This is the task which the publishers have enterprisingly undertaken, and with the assistance of an accomplished editor and a corps of able specialists and writers have now completed. The scope of the work included in the additional volumes is necessarily a wide and interesting one, since it aims to supply, in regard to the whole field embraced in the parent book, what is tantamount to a tenth edition of that colossal work, with the addition of the modern biographies and a later and more exhaustive treatment of American topics. The indispensable value of the new material embodied in the Supplement will thus be seen at a glance, while a detailed examination of the new volumes will show that the work has been thoroughly well done and is of timely as well as of permanent worth.

One advantage in the publishers' arrangements for the issue of the work is that the new volumes may be had not only by the purchasers of the original twenty-five-volume set, but may be had, separately, by owners of other cyclopædias which have become more or less antiquated, as well as by those who wish a practical, up-to-date reference work covering merely the period of the last twenty years. This arrangement, no doubt, will be appreciated, since to the original Britannica subscribers it not only renews and prolongs the serviceableness and worth of the twenty-five volumes already in their possession, but gives those who own or do not own other cyclopædias the well-nigh priceless material embraced in the new five volumes. A further obvious advantage of the separate publication is this, that it gives, in comparatively limited space, and at a modest price, fresh reference matter, dealing, for instance, with science, including mechanics, electricity and engineering, which experts and specialists may only desire; or new matter, say in biography, that may be sought only by those who consult a cyclopædia for biographical or general literary information.

The scientific, historical and literary merit of the new volumes is a feature of the work to which the publishers are justified in calling attention, for a large proportion of the writers are among the eminent names engaged in American educational, professional, governmental and scientific work. Our limited space prevents an enumeration of the names of these contributors, though mention may be made of Cardinal Gibbons, Hon. John Sherman, Speaker T. B. Reed, Prof. McMaster, General Nelson A. Miles, Prof. Hinsdale, Generals Flagler and Greely, Dr. Mark W. Harrington, Prof. Locy, Prof. Simon Newcomb, Rev. Dr. Withrow, Rossiter Raymond, Sheppard Homans, John P. Meany, Chas. H. Cochrane, and Frances E. Willard. To each of these writers and specialists was assigned the subject in which he was most versed, and consequently was most competent to deal with. Thus has the specialized work in the Supplement been put, approximately, on the high plane on which the articles stand in the original Britannica; and a comparison with the latter will show that, in the more important subjects at least, in the new volumes, special care has been taken to treat each article adequately. Value has been added to the articles by a liberal expenditure on illustrations, a feature of vital interest in the case of modern portraiture.

* * *

Announcement is made by The Macmillan Company, of London and New York, of the authoritative, family biography of the late Lord Tennyson, which has been eagerly looked for by the many friends of the English laureate and lovers of his melodious verse. The memoir has been prepared by the poet's son, the present Baron Tennyson, and will be enriched, we understand, by the insertion of poems never before published, and of letters to friends of the poet, "to which a less closely related biographer could not have access." The work, which is said to have been prepared with great care and deliberation, will be embellished with photogravure portraits of Lord and Lady Tennyson, facsimiles of portions of poems, and illustrations by several artists.

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EDUCATIONAL STUDIES FOR YOUTH:

SOME NOTES ON THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

THE story of Columbus has been told so often and is so well known to every school boy that only two or three points in his career will be touched upon here. Everybody knows that the discovery of America was an accident. Columbus was not hunting for a new world, and, indeed, he died in ignorance of the fact that he had found a new world. What he was after was a new route to the Indies. Now, what put into his head the idea that he could reach the Indies by sailing west?

The Round Earth

Most persons will answer this question substantially like this: "Columbus was one of the very few men of his day and generation who had become seriously impressed with a notion that the earth was not flat, as everybody down to that time had thought to be the case, but was round; and if it were round, then, of course, the Indies could be reached by sailing west as well as by travelling east."

This is in substance the way in which this part of the story of Columbus is told in most of our school histories — in all of them, in fact, except those which have been published quite recently — and in almost all of the "popular" histories of America. Never was a greater mistake inserted into a book of history. The truth is, Columbus *knew* that the earth was round; there was no guesswork about it. This fact had been known for at least two thousand years. Aristotle, who lived three hundred years before the Christian era, knew it. The great astronomer Thales of Miletus knew it; and he lived three hundred years before Aristotle. In the time of Eratosthenes, — that is, in the second century before Christ, — astronomers not only knew that the earth was a huge globe, but they had succeeded in calculating with a considerable degree of accuracy the distance round it.

How any writer of history, even the most careless, could commit the blunder of saying, as many have said, that the idea of a round earth was a novelty in the time of Columbus, is hard to understand, since in the old Ptolemaic system of astronomy, which was then accepted by the learned, the round earth occupies the centre of the universe, and about it circle the seven planets. Ptolemy in his great work on astronomy, called the Almagest, noted a number of facts in proof of the globular figure of the earth, and among these proofs is one which is still employed, though in a reverse way, in teaching this truth to children. It is that when sailors are approaching the land from sea the tops of mountains become visible before the lowlands, and that this happens no matter in what direction they may sail. What better proof of the earth's roundness can we have than this?

No; what troubled Columbus was an uncertainty, not as to the earth's shape, but as to its size. To the westward of Europe lay the Indies; there was no doubt about that. But *how far* were they to the westward?

This was a very important question to decide. Its decision depended upon two conditions, both of which were undetermined in his day, first, the size of the earth, and, second, the extent of Asia to the eastward. It is fortunate, perhaps, for the fame of Columbus that upon both of these points he adopted wrong conclusions. He accepted as the most reliable measure of the earth's circumference one which had been made by the Arab astronomers, which is now known to have been too small; while in judging of the extent of Asia he was misled by the extravagant accounts of Marco Polo. The conclusion at which he arrived finally, and in which he was sustained by the celebrated Florentine geographer, Toscanelli, was that the known lands, reckoned from the Azores, in the west, to the extreme eastern countries visited by Marco Polo, extended about two-thirds of the way around the globe. The intervening space was occupied by the unknown remainder of Asia and by the Atlantic ocean, thus reduced to a comparatively narrow sea. In the opinion of Toscanelli, who sent him a chart of the eastern parts of Asia, constructed from the descriptions of Marco Polo, the distance from Portugal to the province of Mangi, near Cathay, was about 4,000

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miles. Columbus himself was confident that the Atlantic could be crossed in a month's sailing.

With this firm belief that he could reach the coast of Cathay, or China, in a month's time, Columbus sailed from Palos with his three small barques and his company of one hundred and twenty men, on Friday, August 3, 1492. He sailed first to the Canaries, where he spent nearly a month in making repairs upon one of his vessels. On September 6 he again set sail.

Land Ho! At 2 o'clock on the morning of a never-to-be-forgotten day, Friday, October 12, 1492, a signal gun from the "Pinta" announced — land! During the long voyage over an unknown sea the superstitious sailors had more than once taken alarm at imaginary dangers, and it had required all the tact and firmness of Columbus to keep them from open mutiny. But this was all passed now. When the day broke, there it lay before them — a low and beautiful island, one of the group now known as the Bahamas, called by the natives *Guanahani*.

Columbus landed with great ceremony, clad in his rich admiral's robes, and accompanied by officers and men bearing the royal ensigns of Spain. Having first devoutly given thanks to God for his guidance and protection, he erected a cross and took formal possession of the country in the names of the King and Queen of Spain, and gave to the island the Christian name San Salvador.*

It was a strange and interesting sight which met the eyes of these first European visitors to America. "The verdure of the island," wrote Columbus in his journal, "was equal to that of Andalusia in the month of April; and the singing of birds and the flocks of parrots were so delightful that no one could wish ever to leave it." The natives were "all painted, some white, some red, some black, after their fashion." Yet they were "well-formed and good-looking." It is interesting to note with what thoughts Columbus looked upon these natives. In this journal, intended for the King and Queen, he says: "They would make good, intelligent servants;" and he adds, "I think also they would make good Christians." Servants and Christians! That is what the Spaniards did make of them in the end.

So America was discovered. But not until several years after this was the greatness of the discovery known. Columbus supposed that he had reached the eastern part of Asia, and in the course of his explorations among these West Indies, as we now call them, he was continually on the lookout for places laid down on the map of Toscanelli. Cuba he mistook for a part of the main land of Asia; and Hayti he supposed at first to be Cipango, the name given by Marco Polo to Japan. He searched the woods for spices; he questioned the natives, as well as he could, about the names of places, eager to carry back to Spain something which would prove that he had been to the Indies. After spending three months in this vain search, during which time he lost the largest of his vessels by shipwreck, he sailed in January, 1493, on his return voyage. Instead of silks and spices of India, he carried back with him curiosities of the newly-discovered lands, — specimens of odoriferous woods, birds of brilliant plumage, a few ounces of gold, obtained mostly from the natives of Hayti, in exchange for beads and hawks-bells, and lastly, some of the natives themselves, to be taught the Spanish language and to be instructed in the Christian religion.

Ojeda and Vespucci In the spring of 1499 Alonzo de Ojeda, an experienced navigator, who had been with Columbus on his first voyage, fitted out a private exploring fleet of four vessels at the port of St. Mary's, Spain. News had been received that Columbus, then absent on his third voyage, had discovered a great continent in the South Atlantic, and Ojeda had obtained copies of the charts which he had sent home to the King. This expedition is one of great interest because with it went Amerigo Vespucci, or as the name occurs more often in its Latin form, Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence, but then residing at Saville, as agent of a mercantile house, who, by a singular stroke of fortune, gave his name to the new world.

[TO BE CONCLUDED IN THE NOVEMBER ISSUE.]

*Geographers are now generally agreed that the land first made by Columbus was Watling Island, one of the Bahamas, and not the island which now bears the name of San Salvador.

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FAMOUS VOYAGES:

THE FIRST VOYAGE OF VASCO DA GAMA

ON the 17th of May, 1498, the very month in which Sebastian Cabot sailed from Bristol on his second voyage, "to seek the East by sailing west," Vasco da Gama, in command of a Portuguese squadron, sighted the coast of Malabar. Da Gama had sailed around the southern extremity of Africa and had opened at last the long-sought ocean route from Europe to the East. To understand the full significance of this famous voyage, we must review, though very briefly, the history of maritime discovery during the preceding eighty years.

The year 1418 is a date well worth remembering. It was in this year that Prince Henry, the youngest son of John I. of Portugal, established his residence in the neighborhood of Cape St. Vincent, with the purpose of devoting his entire energies to the work of exploring the western coast of Africa. For forty years Prince Henry continued at this work, with a zeal and a measure of success which earned for him the surname of "The Navigator," by which he is known in history. Year after year he sent out exploring expeditions, now under one commander and now under another, and little by little the veil of mystery which had enveloped the Atlantic coast of Africa was lifted; yet how very slowly, a few dates will show.

When Prince Henry began this great work the African coast was known as far south only as Cape Nun, a headland on the Morocco coast, in the latitude of the Canary Islands. These islands had been known for about three quarters of a century, and were at this time occupied by Spaniards. Prince Henry's first expedition, sent out in 1418, extended the knowledge of the coast to Cape Bojador, but no farther. In 1420 the Madeira Islands were discovered. In 1433 Cape Bojador was passed, and a further extent of ninety miles of coast was explored. In 1441 Nuno Tristan discovered Cape Blanco; two years later he explored the coast to a considerable distance beyond this cape. In 1446 Denis Fernandez sailed as far south as Cape Verde; and ten years later Cada Mosto went beyond this cape as far as north latitude 11 degrees and 30 minutes. In 1462, two years after the death of Prince Henry, the explorers passed Cape Palmas, where the coast trends eastward above the Gulf of Guinea.

Trade followed in the wake of exploration, principally trade in ivory and slaves. In 1469 King Alphonso V., of Portugal, farmed out a large portion of this African trade to a citizen of Lisbon for five years, one condition being that he should each year discover one hundred leagues of coast eastward from Sierra Leon. When this grant expired, in 1474, the discovery had extended around the Gulf of Guinea as far as Cape Lopez, two and a half degrees south of the equator. Then followed, in 1484, the discovery of the Congo River, by Diego Cam. On a second voyage this explorer reached a point on the coast in south latitude 22 degrees, that is, he went nearly to the Tropic of Capricorn.

Then came, in 1486, the voyage of Bartholomew Diaz, only a little less famous than that of Da Gama, because Diaz succeeded in rounding the southernmost point of the continent and followed the coast eastward nearly to what is now known as Natal. Diaz was confident of being able to reach India; but owing to shortness of provisions he was obliged reluctantly to turn back. On his return he discovered a cape, to which he gave the name Cabo Tormentoso, the Cape of Storms, because of the violent weather he had encountered when he first passed it without seeing it, but which King John preferred, for an obvious reason, to call the Cape of Good Hope.

Notwithstanding the "good hope" which King John entertained that his ships would soon reach India, the state of his affairs prevented his sending at once an expedition to follow up the success of Diaz. King John died in 1495, and the succession of the crown passed to his cousin, Don Emanuel. In the meantime America had been discovered, and this event had, no doubt, much to do with the new King's determination to make one more attempt to reach India by sailing around Africa.

King Emanuel ordered two ships to be built, one of 120 tons, which was named

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the San Gabriel, the other of 100 tons, which was named the San Raphael, and he also purchased a caravel of 50 tons, named the Berrio. These vessels being ready, he conferred upon Vasco da Gama, a gentleman of his household and a man versed in nautical affairs, the command of the expedition. The King also appointed under Vasco, his brother, Paul da Gama, who was given the command of the San Raphael, and Nicholas Coello, who took command of the caravel. To this fleet was added, as a tender for carrying provisions, a ship of 200 tons, which was to be destroyed after the passage of the Cape of Good Hope.

All things being ready, Da Gama embarked his company, "being one hundred and forty-eight persons,"—or one hundred and seventy, according to another account,—at Belem, the port of Lisbon, on Saturday, July 8, 1497. A sea voyage in those days, particularly a voyage of this hazardous description, was a momentous undertaking. "At the embarkation," says the historian Castaneda, "all the religious of the Church of Our Lady at Belem, went in procession, barefooted and in their cowls, with wax tapers in their hands, praying, accompanied by most of the people of Lisbon, weeping and pitying those who were to embark." We can imagine this solemn and sad procession, the praying monks and the weeping friends, the candles and the bare feet; yet, much as we may feel disposed to smile at the spectacle, it must be admitted that the gloomy forebodings of these good people were not groundless. Of this venturesome company of seamen, only fifty-five, or barely more than one in three, came back.

Da Gama sailed first for the Cape Verde Islands, where he remained a week or so to make a few repairs upon his vessels. On Tuesday, August 3, the voyagers again set sail, and steered directly for the Cape of Good Hope "through the main ocean, for the months of August, September, and October, in which they met with many tempests of wind and rain, so that they expected nothing but present death." On the 4th of November "they saw land to their great joy." It turned out to be a part of the African coast about one hundred miles north of the Cape of Good Hope. They named a small bay where they remained for a week or more the Bay of St. Helena—a name which it still bears.

The Cape was sighted on the afternoon of Saturday, November 18, but, owing to contrary winds, it was not passed until the following Tuesday. Then the voyagers "ran along the coast with a fair wind, sounding their trumpets and showing other signs of joy. They saw on shore store of cattle, some large, some small, and all fat; but they saw no towns, there being none on the coast, though inland there are some, the houses of which are all earth, covered with straw. The people are blackish, apparelled, and speaking like those of St. Helena Bay, and using the same sort of darts and instruments of defense." This is one of the earliest accounts which we have of the Bushmen of South Africa.

Sixty leagues beyond the Cape was the "watering place" of St. Blas—so named by Bartholomew Diaz—a fine bay, now the port of Georgetown, where they remained to take in water, transfer the provisions from the tender and to make repairs until December 8. On leaving this place they encountered a violent gale; but fortunately they escaped disaster, and were able to make some progress. Then came a head wind, and during its continuance they were driven back sixty leagues by the current. Resuming their course with a fair wind, they found, "contrary to their expectation," that they were able to make head against the current, and "the general was much elated, concluding that now he could reach India." On Christmas day they reached a section of the coast to which they gave the name Natal, in honor of the day of the Nativity. Still running along the coast, landing at one or two points and having pleasant intercourse with the natives, they arrived, January 24, at the mouth of the Zambezi River.

Here they met with signs that India was not far distant. They found linen and cotton cloth. One chief had on his head a handkerchief wrought with silk; another, a cap of green satin. They had, in fact, reached a point to which the Arab merchants had extended their trade along the east coast of Africa, as the Portuguese had done along the west.

At the Zambezi they remained a month, to lay the ships aground and repair them; and during this time the Portuguese sailors were attacked by a strange and unheard-of disorder. "The hands and feet of

many of them swelled, and their gums, to such a degree that they could not eat. The gums rotted, and the smell that proceeded out of the mouths of the diseased persons was intolerable. Many died, but others recovered." This is the first mention that we find in history of the effects of that dreadful disorder, scurvy.

On the 1st of March they reached the island of Mozambique. They found here a town, of which the houses were of "straw." The people were black, were dressed in cotton cloth striped with different colors, wore turbans, some of silk inwrought with gold thread, carried swords and daggers like the Moors, and spoke Arabic. There were merchants here, who traded in large ships without decks and "built without nails." These Moors mistook the Portuguese for Turks, and received them with marks of friendship. The Governor and Da Gama exchanged presents. Da Gama was informed that from there to Calicut was nine hundred leagues, and that he would need a pilot. Two pilots were furnished him by the Governor. But when, upon further acquaintance, it was discovered by the Moors that they were dealing, not with Turks of their own religious faith, but with Christians, their demeanor changed. A plot was laid for destroying the Portuguese, but fortunately for them it was revealed by one of the pilots. From this time on, during his stay here, Da Gama had plenty of trouble. One pilot deserted, and the other tried to do likewise and was put in confinement. Attempts to get water brought on skirmishes with the Moors, in which several Moors were killed and several prisoners were secured, one of whom proved to be a pilot.

Da Gama remained in the neighborhood of Mozambique, on account of headwinds, nearly a month, and to show his opinion of the treatment accorded him by the inhabitants, before leaving he "battered" their town with his ordnance.

Continuing his voyage up the coast, meeting with one mishap in the grounding of one of his vessels, though the vessel was finally floated, and narrowly escaping others, he arrived, on the 7th of April, at Mombassa. Here again he was near becoming a victim of treachery at the hands of the Moors who had received him with a semblance of friendship.

His next stopping-place was Melinda, eighteen leagues north of Mombassa. The city was large and "contained many houses of stone, several stories high, with windows and terraces of lime and earth." It was a resort of both Moorish and Arab traders. There were Christians here as well as Moors. The "King," though a Moor, was a man of liberal views, and with an eye to business, and his reception of Da Gama was sincerely friendly. He furnished the Portuguese with two pilots, to conduct them to Calicut.

Da Gama sailed from Melinda on the 22d of April, and, quitting the shore, steered directly across the Indian Ocean. On the 17th of May, when the fleet had been out of sight of land for twenty-three days, a high shore was sighted, at a distance of eight leagues. For a couple of days they hovered around this coast, uncertain exactly where they were, until, on the 20th, the pilot discovered hills which he recognized as those above the city of Calicut, and "with much joy he demanded his reward of Da Gama, assuring him that this was the land he so much desired to see." The general paid him, and "immediately went to prayers, saying the salva, and returning thanks to God for their happy arrival. After prayer they feasted and rejoiced, and on the evening came to anchor two leagues from Calicut."

The main object of the voyage — the opening of a sea route to India — was now accomplished. In attempting to carry out his secondary purpose of establishing trade with Calicut, Da Gama was not quite so successful, owing to the jealousy of the Moorish merchants.

The return voyage was not without its hardships and dangers. Owing to headwind and tempestuous weather, it took over four months to cross the Indian Ocean from Calicut to Melinda. On this passage the Portuguese were again attacked with the dreaded scurvy. Being short-handed, Da Gama found it necessary to burn one of his vessels, and the "San Raphael" was selected as the victim.

On the way up the west coast of Africa, Nicholas Coello took occasion to desert Da Gama, and he arrived at Lisbon with his caravel on the 10th of July, and "carried to the King the joyful news of the discovery of the passage to India." Da Gama himself was delayed by the sickness of his brother, who finally died, and he did not reach Portugal until September.

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THE SCIENCE OF FAMILIAR THINGS:

VI.—THE SMALLEST BODY

STANDING before me on the table as I write is a tumbler filled to the brim with water. There is a little story to be told about this glass of water. Half an hour ago the glass was filled from a pitcher of pure water as completely as you may see it now, in imagination—so completely that the addition of a few drops more would certainly have caused it to overflow. There have since been put into the glass little by little two teaspoonfuls of salt, one teaspoonful of sugar and fifty drops, equivalent to half a teaspoonfull, of alcohol, and not a drop of the water has overflowed. The salt and the sugar have been disolved, of course, but though no longer visible, neither has been annihilated. Both are at the present moment in the glass, and they might be recovered by evaporating the water and the alcohol. Where have they stowed themselves? How have three teaspoonfuls of solid matter and half a teaspoonful of liquid matter found room for themselves within the limits of a space which was already preëmpted by water, and was, apparently, as full as could be filled?

There is a saying that two things cannot occupy the same space at the same time. This is no novel, modern idea, but the adage is as old as philosophy itself, and, generally speaking, it is quite true. Two men cannot stand at the same time on the same square foot of ground, nor can two trees grow in precisely the same spot. But like all other adages, scientific not excepted, it is not to be taken too literally; it has its exceptions, even if only partial. Thus a basket containing eggs might be said to be full if it contained so many eggs that not another could be added to the number. Yet one would have no difficulty in stowing within the limits of the same space a half peck of sawdust. Or, to take an illustration nearer to the point at which we started, instead of filling this glass with water I might have filled it with duck shot, but, though the glass would then have been full, in the sense that it could hold no more shot, I would have had no difficulty in sifting into it two or three teaspoonfuls of sand. And when as much sand had been sifted into it as it could hold under the circumstances there would still have remained room for a few teaspoonfuls of water.

A place may seem, then, to be occupied by something and yet not be filled so completely that there is not room within it for something else. But this can happen only, so far as we can see, when the first occupant is constituted somewhat like a pile of eggs or a mass of shot, that is when it is made up of parts so loosely fitting that there are spaces between them into which can penetrate the smaller parts of another similarly constituted body.

Is water constituted in this way? The most powerful microscope fails to disclose any evidence of such a make-up. Water remains water still, though we magnify the thinest film of it a thousand times. There is nothing granular in its appearance. And yet if it is not made up in this way, resembling to this extent a mass of shot, and if salt and sugar have not also a similar constitution, being made up of particles that are even smaller than those of water, how can we account for what we have just seen in this experiment? How could the salt and the sugar stow themselves within the water without increasing its bulk if there were not holes in the water, comparable to the vacant spaces between the eggs and the shots, into which their smaller particles could creep?

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One would hardly suppose that a piece of iron or of gold or of silver was porous; yet experiment has proved that all of these metals are filled with pores, though so infinitesimal in size as to be undiscoverable with a microscope. Small hollow globes of gold and silver filled with water have been flattened under powerful presses and the water has been squeezed out of them without injury to the metal. Cannon are tested by filling them with water and subjecting them to hydraulic pressure. Drops of water appear on the outside of the gun. This water has been pressed through the iron, proving that the particles of the iron are not solidly

packed, but that there are interstices between them large enough to permit the passage of the particles of water, as through the meshes of a sieve.

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When heat is applied to any solid body, or to a liquid or gaseous mass, the effect is to cause the body or the liquid or the gas to expand and to occupy more space than before. This is one of the most familiar of facts. The blacksmith stretches the tire which he wishes to put upon a wheel by heating it until it becomes large enough to be put in place easily, and when the tire cools and contracts it fits the wheel closely and binds it firmly. In the same way the steel tires are "shrunk" on to the cast iron wheels of a locomotive; and large guns are hooped with steel rings by the same application of heat. A familiar example of the expansion of liquids is afforded by the thermometer. The common thermometer consists essentially of a slender glass tube, at one end of which is a bulb filled with mercury, a liquid which is peculiarly sensitive to heat. An increase in the volume of the mercury in the bulb, due to its expansion, causes an overflow of the mercury into the tube. Since a given amount of heat always produces the same expansion of the mercury, the amount of the overflow and therefore the height to which the mercury rises in the tube is proportional to the temperature. The addition of a graduated scale which marks the height of the mercury is all that is necessary to make the instrument thus constructed the "heat measurer," which its name signifies. Instead of mercury any other liquid might be used, since every liquid expands more or less upon the application of heat. Indeed, where very low temperatures are to be measured alcohol is employed, since mercury freezes at 39 degrees below zero, Fahrenheit, and cannot be used for lower temperatures than this, while alcohol has never yet been solidified.

Hot air rising from a chimney is a familiar example of the effect of heat upon a gas. This air has been expanded, or rarefied, as we commonly say, by the heat. It is, therefore, lighter than the surrounding air, and it rises in consequence, as a cork rises when it has been submerged in water and is set free. The winds afford another example, for wind is simply a rush of air from one region toward another where the air, warmed by the sun, has been rarefied and is rising.

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The facts which we have here passed hastily in review — the singular behavior of a mixture of salt or sugar and water, the evident porosity of metals, the expansion of all forms of matter under the action of heat — are among the most striking of the facts on which is based the modern theory of the "molecular" constitution of matter. We have already hinted at this theory in our supposition as to the possible make-up of water, salt and sugar. Perhaps the best idea of what the theory is can be conveyed by saying that matter — by which term is meant substance of every sort, solid, liquid or gaseous — is supposed to have a granular structure, though its grains, its molecules, as they are called — are infinitely smaller than anything of which we can conceive. Imagine a grain of sugar to be crushed and pounded until it is reduced to particles so tiny as to be scarcely visible in a powerful microscope. Every one of these particles, minute as it is, contains millions of molecules, say the physicist and the chemist. It can still be divided, at least in imagination; and if we would find the molecule we must go on with the division, making the particles smaller and smaller until we reach, in imagination, a particle so small that it cannot be broken up without destroying its character as sugar. In other words, a molecule of sugar is the smallest particle of this substance which can exist as sugar, and which, when broken up, becomes something else than sugar. Break up the molecule — tear apart the atoms which form it, and you get the elements of sugar, namely, carbon, hydrogen and oxygen.

What is here said of sugar applies to every other substance. Every substance is conceived to be at bottom a mass of molecules, each of which represents the substance perfectly, containing all of its elements, but of the appearance of which, were they large enough to have an appearance, we can form only the vaguest conception. We may imagine them as of various shapes and of various sizes, though the presumption is that those of every separate substance are perfectly alike in both of these respects.

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In the combination of these molecules into masses heat plays an important part. At a low temperature the molecules have a powerful attraction for one another. They cling to one another with a force of the strength of which we may judge when it is said that it is this molecular force which gives to a substance its hardness, rendering it more or less difficult to crush or break. When the molecules are clinging together thus we have matter in its solid state. Yet singular to say — and here is one of the many mysteries which envelope the subject — even in the solid the molecules are not in actual contact with one another, else a solid would not be compressible nor flexible; it could never be squeezed into a smaller compass, nor could it be bent without breaking.

Heat forces these mysterious little bodies to relax their hold upon one another; it puts them into a state of agitation and drives them farther apart. Here is the explanation of expansion.

When the heat applied to a solid body has reached a certain temperature, which is different for different substances, the attracting force which draws the molecules together is exactly balanced by an opposite force due to the heat; and the molecules, no longer tied together, are free to wander at will and to glide over and around one another without let or hindrance. The solid has been melted, as we say, and we have matter in the liquid state. If the heating is continued, sooner or later a point of temperature is reached at which the liquid passes into the third, the gaseous state. The molecules no longer are indifferent to the presence of one another; they are inspired with a sudden impulse to get away from one another as far as possible. They dart hither and thither with enormous velocity, and they are continually colliding with one another and glancing off in new directions, — at least this is what happens if the "kinetic" theory of gases is well grounded, — and in their effort to escape they dash against the sides of the vessel which contains the gas. It is this incessant pounding of the molecules against the sides of the containing vessel that causes the pressure exerted by the gas.

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We may stop here, for our purpose has been merely to catch a glimpse of these little bodies, or, to speak more strictly, a glimpse of the ideas of physicists respecting them. But one thing more; we would be glad to know the probable size of these smallest of bodies. According to the calculation of Lord Kelvin, one of the foremost authorities on matters of this sort, if a ball of water of the size of a foot-ball were to be magnified to the size of the earth, its molecules would have a size not less than that of duck shot nor greater than that of foot-balls. Is it any wonder that they are invisible?

G. SENECA JONES.

MORE ABOUT LEARNING LANGUAGES

MUCH interest has been expressed in regard to the subject which a contributor dealt with in SELF CULTURE for July — on "Learning Languages for Business Purposes." The subject, in its general aspects, has since, we note, been taken up, with manifest interest, by other periodicals. A writer in "Chambers's Journal" has specially dwelt upon the benefit all may derive from the study of a foreign tongue, since, as he argues, it is an excellent memory-trainer, while it largely increases the power the language-learner gains over his own speech. There is, besides, he adds, the pleasure that is inseparable from every intellectual pursuit, and also the practical profit of being able to converse with a foreigner whom we may chance to meet either in the way of business or pleasure.

As to methods of study, the writer cited wisely places last the learning of the grammar, and counsels the student to begin at once to read the language he designs to learn. He abjures the wading through a grammar at the outset and getting up by heart — if that be possible — all the conjugations, inflections, exceptions and idioms. Though the ordinary accepted notion of what is required to be done in the initiatory process of learning a foreign tongue, he would away with all that, and bids the student, at the outset, not to trouble his mind

about grammar and grammatical rules. Except to those who have had some previous grounding in a language, he continues, the grammar is sure to prove a stumbling-block, and to beget naught but despair. A good dictionary, and a book of simple tales in the language chosen, are all that is necessary in the first instance. With these in hand, the motto of the beginner should then be to read, read, read. The printed page, at first new and unfamiliar, will gradually unfold itself as word after word is learned, and when a sentence has been translated, the reader will go on with a strange feeling of delight to master more of the contents. There is no better method of retaining a word in the memory than in having to go to the trouble of looking it up in the dictionary. The word will be certain to stick, more especially if it is found recurring once or twice in the same page. As much reading should be done as time will allow.

A page of the dictionary may also be frequently gone over. It soon acquires a wonderful interest. In this way the study is made from the first attractive and agreeable. If the book read be by one of the best writers, its inherent qualities will interest, while the increasing power to interpret correctly the writer's meaning will act as a constant stimulus to go on acquiring more words and phrases, and their correct use. The help of a friend embued with similar desires and aims will be useful. At the outset, attempts should be made to carry on conversation together in the language. The power to do this, at first halting and awkward, will gradually expand. The name of every object which is round about us in our daily life should be learned and referred to in conversation. The phrases employed to denote particular actions and feelings should be looked up as they recur to the mind. Now and again the conversation that may be heard at the table, in the train, anywhere, may be translated mentally. There are many times when one is alone and there is nothing in particular to occupy the thoughts. Such moments should be seized to recall words we have come across in our reading, and thus make them the more firmly our own. A book of poems will be of much assistance. It is easier to learn a poem by heart than a bit of prose, and if the meaning of each passage has been thoroughly mastered, it will be a simple operation to recall each word by its context. In this way it is wonderful how rapidly the vocabulary increases.

Of course it must not be assumed that we counsel the entire neglect of the grammar. The grammar will by-and-by be taken up with almost as much interest as the tale itself, for, as the beauties and graces of the language reveal themselves, the learner will not rest content till he has made himself master of all its intricacies. But what we want to insist upon is that the grammar in the first instance should be given a secondary place.

The method we have thus briefly sketched serves to arrest the attention and interest from the outset, and it robs the study of the nature of a task, which is distasteful to most people who have lost their early enthusiasms. One very important consideration is, that all this may be done in those odd moments of time which the busiest man has at his command. There need be no question of sitting down as it were to the performance of an unpleasant duty. When that feeling is present, it is rare that much good work is accomplished. There should be a resolve, too, to do something every day. If an hour cannot be spared, then an odd five or ten minutes should not be lost. However little may be attempted, it should be steadily persevered in. To learn a foreign language in this manner is a pleasurable exercise; to attempt the task according to the old methods is a dreary drudgery which repels the mind and too often ends in failure.

It is announced that William J. Frye, an architect of New York city, has drawn plans for a tower to commemorate the consolidation of Greater New York. It is to be 2,140 feet in height, while the Eiffel tower is only 984 feet, less than half this height. The tower is to be twelve-sided and built of steel. The lowest portion will be 300 feet in diameter and will be flanked by four buildings, giving the structure a base of 400 feet. The outer walls will be of cement and wirecloth. Internally the tower will be a labyrinth of steel columns, girders, beams, plates, etc., no wood being used. Electric cars will run spirally around the 100-foot central area, making a trip to the fifth floor from the top, about a 2½ mile ride.

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QUESTION DEPARTMENT

OF THE HOME UNIVERSITY LEAGUE

For the benefit of those whose acquaintance with the Question Department begins with this issue, it may be well to say that SELF CULTURE readers are expected to look up in the Encyclopædia Britannica each day the answer to the question given for that day. This will seldom require more than one hour, but in the event that one evening's leisure does not suffice, it will be easy to continue the investigation the following evening while the subject is still fresh in the reader's mind. The conscientious pursuit of the home study involved in this department will lead to the possession of a large and varied stock of general information.

THE answers to SELF CULTURE questions for October will be found in various volumes of the new Encyclopædia Britannica. The volume and page are indicated after each question.

Oct. 1. What was the Diamond Necklace affair, of which Tallyrand said that it threatened at one time to overturn the French throne? Vol. XX, p. 623

Oct. 2. Of what does the wealth of Alaska consist, and what is the computed area of the territory? What is the date of its discovery, and by whom was it discovered? Vol. I, p. 443

Oct. 3. Give the meaning of the term "anachronism," and ascertain the literary as well as the etymological sense in which the term is used. Vol. I, p. 787

Oct. 4. What was Philip of Spain's motive in despatching the Armada against England? Vol. II. p. 543

Oct. 5. Wherein did the Wars of the Roses differ widely in their military character from the civil wars of earlier times? Vol. VIII, p. 329

Oct. 6. What evidence have we, in Pitt's day, of the "incompatibility" of two co-ordinate legislatures within the United Kingdom? Vol. VIII, p. 360

Oct. 7. Account for the Latinizing tendency which showed itself in the English language at the period of the Revival of Learning. Vol. VIII, p. 399

Oct. 8. Give, in years, the proximate chronological eras embraced in the terms Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), Middle English, Early Modern English, and Modern English. Vol. VIII, p. 402

Oct. 9. The great effort of the Scholastics to philosophize in harmony with the Christian dogma attained, it is said, its completest result in the teaching of Thomas Aquinas. What were the teachings and ethical system of Aquinas? Vol. VIII, p. 593

Oct. 10. Which are the two best collections of epigrams accessible to the English reader? Vol. VIII, p. 479

Oct. 11. What is the composition of the peat-beds in the Falkland Islands, and wherein do they differ from those in Northern Europe? Vol. IX, p. 15

Oct. 12. Contrast the extent of woodland in such countries as Norway and Sweden with that in Holland, Spain, and Great Britain. Vol. IX, p. 397

Oct. 13. What was the nature of the love affair that set Froissart, the famous French chronicler, on his wanderings? Vol. IX, p. 799

Oct. 14. Explain the nature of Benjamin Franklin's services, before a committee of the British House of Commons, which led to the repeal of the hated Stamp Act. Vol. IX, p. 714

Oct. 15. What was the effect on the intellectual life of Schiller and Goethe, of the intimacy that sprang up between them in the year 1794? Vol. XXI, p. 397

Oct. 16. What is the estimated annual yield of the fur-seal fisheries of the world, and what is its approximate gross value? Vol. XXI, p. 583

Oct. 17. What were the qualities of mind and character which Shakespeare is said to have inherited from his mother? Vol. XXI, p. 748

Oct. 18. Which European nation was the first to establish intercourse with the Kingdom of Siam? Give the date. Vol. XXI, p. 854

Oct. 19. The "Nibelungenleid" is the greatest monument of early German literature. What, in brief, is the substance of the story? Vol. XVII, p. 474

Oct. 20. Distinguish between the ethics of the Vedic Hymns and the moral qualities ascribed to the Vedic deities. Vol. XVII, p. 152

Oct. 21. Which sovereign — a general who never knew defeat — became a king at twenty and the greatest monarch on earth before the age of thirty? Vol. I, p. 180

Oct. 22. Of what American writer is it true of which it is said that, since the death of Lord Macaulay, no one save he, has made so solid and valuable a contribution to historical literature? Vol. I, p. 724

Oct. 23. The Japs and the Chinese are known to be close rivals in the art of enamelling; in the work of which of them is the coloring more brilliant and harmonious? Vol. XIII, p. 591

Oct. 24. What was the duration of the siege of Paris after the surrender at Sedan? Vol. IX, p. 627

Oct. 25. To what French minister is credit due for relieving France from the German occupation? Vol. IX, p. 628

Oct. 26. Give the date of the third and last partition of Poland and the surrender by Stanislaus of the crown. Vol. XIX, p. 298

Oct. 27. Give the date of the great earthquake at Lisbon, in which 30,000 inhabitants lost their lives. Vol. XIV, p. 693

Oct. 28. What was the respective strength of the two armies in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866? Vol. III, p. 140

Oct. 29. When did the last capital punishments decreed by the Inquisition take place in Spain? Vol. XIII, p. 95

Oct. 30. To what extent is silk culture carried on in Italy? Vol. XIII, p. 442

Oct. 31. Name the chief Italian shipping ports. Vol. XIII, p. 457

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A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

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SOME TRUTHS ABOUT CUBA*

EDOUARD LABOULAYE, who so ardently championed our institutions some thirty years ago, in his book "Paris in America," tells of the surprise of his countrymen upon reading the news of our defeat at Bull Run, published immediately afterwards in the northern papers. The Frenchman declared it a piece of stupidity to inform the people that their army had been defeated, for surely it would create a panic, with the result that we would not care to sustain the war any longer. But his Yankee friend replied that the contrary would be the result, as the people, now aware that we had an enemy to fight, would make still greater efforts to carry on the war and whip the enemy into submission.

Although this proved true, it is not always so that people want to know the truth, especially when that truth reflects upon themselves. This I have noted particularly in my own experience as war correspondent in Cuba. I spent some five months on the Island immediately after the arrival of Captain-General Weyler, during which time a knowledge of Spanish language and character enabled me to carry on my investigations with the Spanish troops, and even pass their lines and enter the rebel camps. I wrote of things as I had seen them, and after undergoing an imprisonment in Morro Castle, I returned home more or less a hero in the eyes of those who would see the last vestige of Spanish misrule wiped forever from this side of the Atlantic.

Upon my return to Cuba, a year later, Weyler and his soldiers had done their worst. The Cuban farmer had been killed at the plough, the sick had been butchered in their hospitals, villages had been depopulated, and the fertile country rendered a desert. Even a horse had not been allowed to live unless in the possession of a Spanish soldier. With me, the horrors of the so-called war, where there was very little fighting done and a great deal of murder and rapine committed, had become an old story, and I had returned to Cuba with a new mission. So far as my knowledge went, no one had given a plain statement of the Cuban position as they had found it, and it was my intention to go among the insurgents and learn something of Gomez and his army. This involved many dangers, difficulties and hardships, but I accomplished it, with the result that I have been denounced as unfriendly to the Cuban cause. It may be difficult for one sympathizing with the people who are struggling for their liberty, to understand why the result of my investigations should be so entirely different from what had been expected. It is not because I am any the less a sympathizer with the suffering Cubans that this result of my work in the field has not been more

* The author of this frank paper on Cuba is a young and adventurous Brooklyner, known to readers of "Harper's Weekly" and other New York publications, as one of the few American war correspondents who have on the spot closely watched the military situation in Cuba from both sides. He penetrated into that part of the island held by the insurgents under Gomez, joined his forces and fought under him, was imprisoned by the Spanish authorities, and passing through many exploits to freedom, has used the knowledge acquired to write truthfully as well as graphically of events that have come under his own observation.—ED. S. C.

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favorable to them, and I think that if the Cuban managers were to wake up to the true state of affairs in their unhappy island, they would have a better chance of gaining their independence than we of the North had of whipping the South after our defeat at Bull Run.

Weyler's first move upon reaching Havana was to suppress the truth, and then issue false bulletins of Spanish victories and rebel bands annihilated. Well I can recall how we correspondents have laughed time and again at the number of slaughtered Cubans in each successive combat or so-called battle, as reported by Weyler's news bureau. Some enterprising statistician has computed the number of rebels killed, according to these reports, and has found that more rebels were killed than the Cubans themselves have ever claimed to have in the field. No one has attempted, however, to compute the number of Spanish soldiers lost by Spain in Cuba, according to our correspondents' reports, *via* Key West. According to these, each year there have been no less than thirty thousand dead from yellow fever, while one ardent sympathizer has lined the "banks" of the Artemisa Trocha "throughout their length with ten thousand graves." To these figures add the numbers which have been killed in the various railroad blow-ups and Cuban victories, not counting whole companies which have deserted to the rebel cause, and one is left wondering how Weyler is able to garrison his towns and wage war upon the pacificos, 400,000 of whom, according to one writer, he is starving to death in stations marked out for the purpose.

At the present writing, Captain-General Weyler claims to have pacified one half of the island. He has the pacified half separated from the other half by what is called the Jucaro-Moron Trocha. As there has been as much misconception concerning Weyler's Trochas as about other matters in Cuba, I may here relate what a Trocha is. For some reason, I do not know why, writers on Cuba have translated the Spanish word *Trocha*, as a trench, and correspondents who have never seen either of the Trochas have described them as such. One writer has gone so far as to compare the Artemisa Trocha with the Suez Canal, with banks, and a ditch, breeding death and pestilence to the thirty thousand troops who guarded it. I may state here that Mr. Akers, of the London "Times" and myself were the only foreign correspondents who visited the Trocha in its palmy days. Mr. Akers was permitted to visit it by Captain-General Weyler, but no American or native correspondent was allowed the privilege at that time. I arrived on the Trocha a day before Mr. Akers. I was arrested on the following morning, but released in the afternoon, after Mr. Akers, I believe, had generously said a good word for me to the commanding officer, he having that privilege on account of his nationality and the pass he held from General Weyler, although up to then I had not myself met the English correspondent. Mr. Akers returned to Havana that same day, but I remained on the Trocha fifteen days and obtained some very excellent photographs of it, many of which were subsequently published, though a great many others were destroyed after my imprisonment.

The Artemisa Trocha, or as it is more generally called, the Mariel-Majana Trocha was simply the fortifying of the cart-road between the port of Mariel on the north, and the little village of Majana, near the south shore of the Island. The road was strung with barbed wire fences, stone walls, and little block houses at a distance of 500 meters from each other. There was nothing resembling a canal or ditch, except where some officer chose to dig a trench around his block-house, or an attempt was made to dig one through the Majana swamp.

The Jucaro-Moron Trocha is a line drawn through the island, about midway between either end. This is the original Trocha, the device of a Spanish engineer, named Gonzales Arenas, in the last war. As the term signifies a path or line, cut straight across a country regardless of its topography, so the line was cut from Jucaro, a small village on the south coast, to Moron, a town on the Junco River, near the north coast. The design of the line was to confine the insurrection in the east, where it had commenced, and to prevent its spreading, just as quarantine stations are sometimes established for the purpose of preventing infectious diseases passing from one territory to another. Such stress was

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laid upon the importance of this line at the time of its creation, as was laid in the present war upon Weyler's Artemisa Trocha, and it was supposed to be as impregnable as the great wall of China. But not until the old warrior Maximo Gomez had crossed it, in company with his wife and servants, and numerous rebel chiefs had crossed and recrossed it, did the Spanish authorities wake up to the fact of its worthlessness. The Spanish Colonel Camps, in his memoirs of the last war, called it a staked line whose only use was to show where the insurgents had crossed from one province to the other, and in a vein of sarcasm he added: "They did well to baptize it with the rustic name of path." Even Martinez Campos thought little of it, for in a communication to his government, dated February 28, 1878, he said: "Now that the war is over, I ought to say that the Trocha cost much and served little."

It seems strange that Spanish military leaders do not appear to have profited by this last experience, for when Antonio Maceo had invaded the extreme Western province of Pinar del Rio, they drew another line across the island, which, following the cart road, eventually became the Artemisa Trocha. The very day that Weyler landed in Havana, Maceo, to show his contempt for the new Captain-General, crossed this line into Havana province and burned and looted several important places in the immediate vicinity of the capital. After spending a week with Gomez, he returned to Pinar del Rio, and then Weyler bent all his efforts to the making of the Artemisa line impassable. After squandering thousands of dollars, and some lives, too, the work proved as useless as the old Jucaro-Moron line, which, as we have seen, "cost much and served little." The rebel General Quintin Bandera crossed it with his escort, and Antonio Maceo, true to his promise, crossed it when he got ready, and that at the time when Weyler claimed to have him surrounded with 20,000 troops in the extreme west of the Island. But the last venture cost Maceo his life.

The Spaniards have never yet admitted the failure of the Artemisa Trocha, which appeared to me from the first as having been constructed on the inverse principle of keeping the enemy in the territory which he had invaded, rather than keeping him out, which was the design of the original inventor of Trochas as military lines. After Maceo had crossed it, in December last, and met his death at the hands of Cirrujeda's column, thus giving Weyler the opportunity of claiming that the province was pacified, the Artemisa Trocha was abandoned, and the work of reconstructing the old Jucaro-Moron Trocha taken up with a renewed energy.

Whatever purpose Weyler may conceive that this present line serves, it is now simply a boundary line separating that part of the Island which the Cubans designate as Free Cuba, from that part which has seen all the horrors of internecine strife. Although the cities of the eastern end of the Island have been nominally in the possession of the Spaniards, the country has been largely under the control of the Cuban government, which for the past two years has been actively engaged in establishing its laws, its system of prefecturas, workshops, post-offices, etc. The so-called government has made no attempt to establish for itself a city or village or permanant residence, but moves from place to place, selecting a camp where food and water may be obtained, with suitable grazing for the horses. Its members chiefly live in hammocks, suspended between trees and sheltered with strips of canvas or oilcloth, very much as Gomez and his followers do.

Judging from my experience in the field, there are very intelligent men at the head of the organization forming the government, who though they are capable of framing good laws, have lacked either the energy or the military power to protect and maintain that which they have set up. The Spaniards have never made any attempt to capture the organization, although in doing so they would not only have set at rest the question of there being, or there not being, any rebel government, but by its capture, they would have broken up that system of prefecturas which has been a great source of annoyance to them. Neither have the Spaniards, since the outbreak began, attempted any extensive operations east of the present Trocha, other than the conveyance of supplies to their inland garrisons.

The consequence is, that in the eastern half of the Island, the Cuban farmer not

only occupies his house and cultivates his bit of land as freely as though there were no war, but he recognizes the Cuban government, accepts its commissions, and obeys its laws with a degree of satisfaction most commendable. By the decrees of the provisional government, he is prohibited from selling any produce for Spanish coin, and there being no other money, he cannot sell at all. Practically the government lays claim to all his stock, and all which he may raise, at the same time urging him to raise more. This situation he has accepted with a degree of contentment which is expressed by him in the common phrase—"All for Cuba!"

It may seem that this change in his condition is one from bad to worse, as his allegiance to Spain has not only been shifted to an irresponsible organization, but instead of being taxed, as formerly, he has been deprived of his property-rights. But the Cuban Republican does not view his situation in this light. From childhood he has grown up to look upon the Spanish uniform with a mingling of fear and hatred, not necessarily because it represents the agents of an exacting government which robs him of his earnings, for the Cuban is as heedless of his money as he is improvident, but because it has clothed a foreigner who overran his land with despotic power, treating the Cuban more or less as a serf, and not only taking that which the government exacted, but helping himself to his possessions and inflicting upon him corporal punishment if he dared to raise a protest.

With the present change, however, the Cuban peasant feels his independence to a greater degree than may at first be imagined. Like the boy who has grown up under a cruel and hard-hearted master, and faces the world with a feeling of self-reliance and freedom from restraint, the peasant has grasped the opportunity offered him by the insurrectionary government of kicking over the traces and becoming an independent citizen. He is made to feel his own importance, even by the forfeiture of his property under the new order of things, and realizes that he has thus become a shareholder in the republic, with certain official positions to hold and work to do, with that sword of Damocles, represented by the Spanish Guardia Civil, no longer hanging over him.

It has long been the dream of idealists to form such a government where laws can be made and obeyed without the necessity of other police than the citizens themselves. This is what has taken place in Free Cuba, where I have known an erring citizen to be detained, in other words arrested and sent a prisoner to headquarters, with no other force than the simple order of a prefecto. But human nature is such that experience proves this state of affairs to continue only just so long as the enthusiasm attending the change is kept up, and as soon as a man's ambition is taken from him by lowering him from the social level of his neighbor, he either becomes a malcontent, or lapses into the stage of civil degeneracy.

The Cuban government has maintained itself more upon a visionary than upon a practical basis. Its members do not seem to have understood that besides the making of just and beneficent laws, they should have devised some means of protecting those people whom they had turned into citizens and made willing enemies of Spain. For example, when I entered that part of Free Cuba designated as the zone of Trinidad, I found prefecturas well established and families living in comparative quiet, tilling the soil and raising crops. They felt secure from attack from their enemies, for the simple reason that the Spanish soldiers had hitherto refrained from carrying on their operations in that section of the country. A year previous, while in the vicinity of this mountainous country, I asked the Cubans if they did not fear that the Spaniards would penetrate there, but they assured me that the Spaniards never would. It was asserted that the mountain passes were unknown to them and, if known, that they were impassable to troops; nor was it possible for them to operate among the mountains, since if they penetrated them they would soon lose themselves and die. Nevertheless, in spite of this fancied security, while I was there a year later, the soldiers came pouring in through the mountain defiles from every direction, and the fleeing pacifico's simile, that "they are like ants swarming upon an ant hill" was an apt one.

Under such conditions as those that prevailed in the Trinidad Mountains, the Cuban government has maintained

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itself in the eastern half of the Island, while the army under Carlixto Garcia has carried the war on more or less aggressively, having actually forced the two towns of Guaimaro and Cascorro into surrender, but fought no decisive battles.

In the four provinces constituting the other half of the Island, the strife has been carried on with a bitterness characteristic of a barbarous warfare, although, in truth, the Cuban government has earnestly endeavored to have their side of it conducted on humane principles. Notwithstanding the overwhelming number of Spanish troops in these provinces, and the activity of their operations since the beginning of the invasion, the provisional government has made its almost mysterious influence felt, owing to the same reasons that have caused the peasants in the east to accept its supremacy.

The invasion of these provinces is another of the circumstances connected with the Cuban war which have been either imperfectly understood or else misrepresented. The general idea of the invasion has been that Maximo Gomez at the head of an army came marching in from the east, sweeping everything before him with an impetuous charge. An American who had been with the invading army expressed his idea of it as a "great humbug," and so it was in the sense that it has been thoroughly misrepresented.

Marti, who has been called the father of the present rebellion, set the time for the revolution to take place on the 24th of February, 1895. The fact that the rising did take place about the time set for it and met with encouragement in every part of the Island has been lost sight of. There had been numbers of secret revolutionary societies throughout the Island for years. They were in communication with Marti's society in the United States, and had furnished him with money from time to time, so that upon the day announced for the rising, many of the young men belonging to these societies in Cuba took to "the woods." Some of these were captured, others remained lurking about the country, or were pursued by the Guardia Civil. In the east, where the revolution was supposed to originate, there were a few fights, ambuscades, skirmishes, etc., in one of which Marti lost his life. It was not till Antonio Maceo had crossed the old military line between Jucaro and Moron, that he with his general-in-chief, Maximo Gomez, was able to unite a formidable force as far as numbers were concerned, and this, according to their own figures, did not exceed 2,600 men. Then followed the invasion, great credit for which has been given to Maximo Gomez, when really the life and soul of it all was Antonio Maceo. The invasion was accomplished by dividing the insurgent force into fractions, with a preconcerted plan to concentrate again at a certain time and place. Thus in small bodies they were able to avoid the Spanish troops, who expected to oppose their advance, and at some point farther west where the Spanish soldiers were unprepared for them, unite and make an attack, which usually resulted to the discomfiture of the Spaniards.

While from the outset it seems to have been the policy of General Gomez to wear the Spaniards out, with his ziz-gag marches and counter-marches, Maceo's policy was to carry on a war by fighting the enemy at every opportunity. He showed this while he held Pinar del Rio, the Spaniards always knowing where he was to be found, and whenever they attempted to get near him, he invariably drove them off.

During the western march of the two rebel generals, their comparatively small forces were constantly being increased by the incorporation of those bands which had already taken the field in compliance with the revolutionary proclamation of José Marti, and by other Cubans from the neighboring towns and villages which they passed. The consequence was that Maceo, at the least expected moment, would appear at some important town with a horde of patriots crying out for "Free Cuba." The Spanish garrison, usually of volunteers, unable to offer resistance to the impetuous multitude, would either shut themselves up in their block-house forts, or surrender. The mob would sack the town and destroy all they could not carry away with them, after which a train load of Spanish soldiers would be shipped to the desolated town, and being unable to distinguish the loyal Cubans remaining from the Cuban insurgents who had left the smoking embers behind, there would follow a frightful massacre. The invasion then

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was really the march of the insurrectionary leaders into those provinces where the people had already risen, or were ready to rise against a hated foe; and it has been only for the lack of a sufficient number of competent officers to direct them that the rule of Spain was not lost forever.

During this invasion the perfectura system of the provisional government continued to be established in a remarkable way. Although the small farmers or peasants of the central provinces were anxious to free themselves from the yoke of Spain, very few of them cared to do any fighting themselves. These farmers, then, were appointed as prefectos, subprefectos, etc., by the insurgent leaders. Their duties were to supervise certain vaguely defined districts, called prefecturas. These prefecturas more often consisted of a farmer's ranch than any definite territory, with the farmer himself holding the office of prefecto. His functions were those of a civil magistrate, with power to appoint and locate subprefecturas, and with like duties incumbent on the same. He was directed to superintend the planting of crops for the supply of the Cuban forces, and to keep open the means of communication between the different prefecturas. As the power of the invading forces increased the peasants trusted in their ability to succeed, and they consequently accepted the offices conferred upon or held out to them with little hesitation. For a time these farmers were able to carry on their avocations as sweet-potato farmers and agents of the revolutionary government with impunity, under the eyes of their Spanish enemies. Not infrequently they went into the Spanish garrisoned towns, sold their produce and came back to the insurgents with valuable information as to the movement of the Spanish troops. After a while, however, the Spaniards discovered their duplicity, and then began other frightful massacres.

Apart from the barbarity of the killing of unarmed people, rebels though they were, in the slaughter that followed there were many innocent people killed or transported, who had no connection whatever with the insurgents. Among the innocent ones figured chiefly the negro. In Spain it was represented that the uprising was of negro malcontents, and the troops sailed from Spain with the idea that their enemies across the water were black; consequently, upon beginning operations in Cuba, the Spanish soldier naturally considered that the darker a man's skin, the greater was the degree of his crime. In Guanajay I met a negro wearing the Spanish cockade on his hat, and he told me that he donned it because his little boy had been shot down in the street as a rebel by a newly-arrived soldier. He thought that the wearing of the cockade would prevent a similar mistake in his own case.

Even the military commanders fresh from Spain, in many cases, believed their enemies were black, and bearing on this I recall an instance that came under my observation while a prisoner in Morro Castle. There were three negroes who had absolutely refused to help a wounded insurgent who was at the time a prisoner with me. The negroes were arrested shortly after the capture of the wounded man, were tried by court martial, and sentenced for life to imprisonment in chains by their Spanish judges.

When I first arrived in Cuba, there was the column commanded by General Vicunya operating in Matanzas province, which seemed to make a specialty of murdering defenseless negroes. A smaller column, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Aldea, made no discrimination in color, since, as he told me himself, all Cubans were rebels, and so he went about the country slaughtering them at every opportunity. He seemed to look upon his acts of appalling brutality as a legitimate means of warfare, and he counted his victims as a hunter would count the results of the chase. The infamous Melguizo openly declared his policy of extermination and earnestly endeavored to carry it out, while the arch-fiend of them all, Major Fonsdeviela, did not take the trouble to hunt down the pacificos in the country, but dragged them from their houses in the village which he garrisoned, and shot them down without compunction on the outskirts of the town.

When these atrocities were published in our daily papers, General Weyler persistently denied them, and expelled the correspondents discovered to have reported them. There is no question but that matters were bad enough upon the arrival of the new Captain-General, but

with his mismanagement, his ignorance of facts, and his want of military skill and sound judgment, affairs went from bad to worse. Under the lead of Antonio Maceo, the rebels were undoubtedly getting the better of him. Weyler's attempt to muzzle the press, his expulsion of correspondents, and his continual publication of false reports, showed a stupidity belonging to a past century. His muzzling the press clearly demonstrated that he was afraid of the truth, and by the publication of false reports, he tried to make himself and his supporters believe what no one else would believe. He consequently deceived himself as to the true situation in the field, while for every American correspondent whom he expelled, two others returned, already prejudiced against him, and in like proportion grew the animosity against the General in the United States.

Whether Weyler was earnest in the disavowal of the atrocities committed by his officers or not, it is certain that such atrocities were merely a renewal of Spanish methods in the past. They were such as he himself had practiced when a lieutenant-colonel under the "butcher" Valmaseda, save that many of the deeds imputed to the latter and his negro band were of a more shocking nature than those of the present war.

Up to the time of Weyler's arrival, the insurgent leaders had continued their march from the east to the west, often taking possession of a town or village, holding it for a day or two, sometimes sacking it, and then abandoning it to be re-occupied by the Spanish troops. This necessitated, according to the Spaniard's idea of war, the enclosure of the towns within lines of fortification, as had been done when the Moors invaded Spain a thousand years ago. In spite of the little block-house forts, which were constructed about these towns immediately upon the arrival of Weyler, Maceo not only entered the towns, but began the destruction of them. The Spaniards soon found that the block-house forts were no protection to them against the attacks of the rebels on a dark night, for while the soldiers were shut up in the forts, the enemy would ride into the town between the forts, and with the aid of petroleum fire the principal edifices of the town. Then began the construction of stone barricades, board fences and barbed wire net-work enclosures. Outside these enclosures it soon began to be recognized by the Spaniards as the enemy's country, and the operations of the troops consisted in going out of a town into the country to search for rebels.

As time went on, it was discovered that the rebels allowed no one outside the Spanish lines of fortifications or enclosures, unless they were sympathizers, and willing to aid the rebellion. As this fact dawned upon Weyler, who carried his campaign on a map of Cuba with pins, he began the establishment of a blockade by prohibiting the taking of anything from the towns into the country without permission from the local military authorities. It proved, however, in most cases, an easy matter for the tobacco planter to represent that his family were in want of clothing, rice, or soap, or salt, and the consequence was that he would leave the town with a pony loaded with supplies which would promptly find their way into the hands of the insurgents. Then Weyler decreed a limit to the supplies to be taken out at any one time from the towns by each individual, but in turn women were discovered carrying out salt under their skirts, and farmers using clothing for saddle cloths. Arrests followed, and other decrees prohibiting absolutely the transportation of effects without a convoy.

At last, after overwhelming force had been brought to bear upon him, Weyler took the field himself. It was then a well established fact that there was no one living outside the towns, unless they were there with the consent of the insurgents; consequently, all of these were not only in sympathy with the revolution, but, unquestionably, were aiding and abetting it. So Weyler issued his proclamation giving the remaining country people, beyond a shadow of a doubt rebels, eight days in which to seek the protection of the fortified towns, after the expiration of which all those found outside would be dealt with as enemies to Spain. Considering the inability of the Spaniards to find the armed insurgents at the opportune moment, and the loose methods of the Spaniards in putting down the insurrection, about the only thing left for them to do was to clean these non-combatant rebels out of the country. This is what has been called Weyler's policy of concentration.

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But, as nearly everybody in Cuba, outside of the Spanish element, is in sympathy with the Cubans, no attention was given to the fact that the insurgents were the first to inaugurate the concentration policy, by driving all non-combatants who refused or neglected to aid them into the Spanish lines, and when Weyler issued his decree of concentration, it applied to those who had remained outside, not only in sympathy with them but aiding them.

Weyler has been accused of withholding or suppressing his proclamation ordering these non-combatants to surrender, in order that he might the more readily continue his policy of extermination, but this accusation is unfounded. When Weyler took the field, the non-combatants knew what to expect from the Spanish soldiery, and some of the half-hearted ones came in. Having been outside the lines, and mingling with the people who came under this proclamation, and with them dodging the Spanish troops, I am aware that there was not one of us who did not understand perfectly well that to be caught meant death.

It was said that in Weyler's "pacification" of Pinar del Rio, his soldiers butchered six thousand non-combatants who had failed to come in, in compliance with his proclamation. Judging from my own observation, I believe this is altogether too large an estimate. I have found it a comparatively easy matter for the Cubans to escape the Spanish soldiers, and, as a general thing, it is owing only to his own carelessness that the Cuban is caught.

The massacre of pacificos really took place before Weyler went into the field, and the Cuban farmer had either decided to remain and help the insurgents or become neutral by seeking the shelter of the fortified towns. When I went through Pinar del Rio, some six months before Weyler, there were no pacificos living in the country, with the exception of a few allowed there by the insurgents in the vicinity of the mountains where the rebels had their camps. Weyler's pacification consisted in driving these few into the bushes, starving a few into surrender, killing others, and breaking up the general system of provisional government organization.

The misery and want in this province, due to the concentration of the people who had depended upon the country for their sustenance, increased to such an extent that the authorities were obliged to issue rations to them, the same as to the soldiers, but nowhere have our correspondents given the Spaniards credit for this. After the atrocities had become an old story, this starvation situation was taken up, and Weyler was made to bear the brunt of it all, deservedly perhaps.

Of Weyler's actual movements in the field, very little has been written. From my own observation of him, I judge him to be more of a theorist than a practical man, and possessed of an overwhelming amount of egotism and self-conceit. In the field, he is given to making rapid marches without due regard to the condition of his men, and apparently has no definite plan of operation, except the destroying of all that may prove of use to the insurgents. He has a temper liable to break out at the least expected moment, taking effect at times upon the inoffensive head of any subordinate who may have unintentionally excited his anger.

While I was in Sancti-Spiritus, General Weyler disembarked at Tunas, and, taking the road parallel with the railroad, marched to Sancti-Spiritus. Upon hearing that he was coming, the whole city, ordinarily a very sleepy town, was thrown into a state of excitement bordering upon a panic. A friend who had been at Tunas, brought me the news of Weyler's arrival at that port on the merchant steamer "Purisima Concepcion." He told me that he had seen Weyler on the wharf using his strap energetically upon the heads of his soldiers who did not seem to move fast enough to suit him.

Weyler preferred the road to the cars, as it was said that he was afraid to trust himself in the railroad. He took up his line of march, mounted upon a handsome horse, accompanied by his escort of negroes and a small body of infantry. As soon as the authorities at Sancti-Spiritus were aware of his coming, the police were ordered to notify the householders, requesting them to decorate their windows with flags or bunting. In compliance with this request, every bit of available cloth possessed by the household was hung over the balconied windows, in the hope that Weyler's impending wrath would be appeased by this

demonstration of loyalty. In the gaudy display that followed, there figured red table cloths, pieces of striped linen and cotton hammock cloth, with an occasional rich piece of tapestry. All day long the various drapings drooped in the sweltering heat of the dusty old city. The local volunteers, in their green and yellow uniforms rested upon their guns in the central plaza, the bell-ringers lazily smoked their cigarettes under the belfreys, and the alcalde bustled about, occasionally wiping his great round goggles, and all waited to receive the man whose name is such a terror to the peaceful inhabitants of Cuba. But the sun passed the zenith and sank into the blue of the mountains, and the General had not arrived.

The next morning, before the majority of the good people of the city were out of their beds, the supreme ruler of the land came riding in attended by his body guard of ferocious looking blacks, infamous, it is said, for their cruelties in the last war. No one appeared ready for this early arrival except the bell-ringers, who immediately set up a terrible din from their respective church towers. The alcalde hastily tumbled out of bed, bugles sounded at the street corners, and while the principal citizens hastened to present themselves before the Captain-General, those of less importance proceeded to hang out the draperies which they had taken in the night before.

Weyler began his work of the day by summoning into his presence the president of the Spanish Club and the backers of the gambling table which had been running under the auspices of the club. From them he extorted the name of those who had been in the habit of winning money from Spanish officers at the table, and as soon as the names were obtained, orders were given for their arrest, including no less a personage than the chief of police. By nightfall, twenty-two of the gamblers were lodged in the city prison, and the following morning six more were taken from their hiding-places. It was past midnight when the general, considering his work done, gathered together his bodyguard and left the city, taking the road for Placetas.

When Weyler first took the field, he conducted his marches with a great deal of military precision. His advance-guard consisted of picked negroes, qualified, it is claimed, by their ferocious aspect. Behind this advance-guard, rode himself and staff, followed by another section of negro cavalry, which formed his escort. Then came a body of infantry acting as a vanguard to the artillery. After the artillery came the *impedimenta*, or pack train, protected by a rear-guard of infantry, then an extreme rear-guard of cavalry or guerrilleros. This is the usual formation of the main column, in addition to which are the *flanqueros*, or wings, consisting of guerrilla and infantry, formed in about the same order. The *flanqueros*, as the name signifies, are to guard the flanks, and scour the country from right to left of the main column, which invariably keeps to the highway. Even these *flanqueros* or wings, in their work of destruction, frequently shy the wooded portions of the country, owing to the fear of an ambush by lurking bands of rebels.

This appears to be the extent of the Captain-General's military knowledge. But after marching in this manner through the central provinces, and meeting neither a formidable army nor opposition of any kind, he divided his army into smaller columns and sent them to hunt rebels in different directions and destroy their resources, while he himself travelled back and forth with his negro cavalry, consisting of only 400 men, and a small body of infantry to protect his baggage. On his march from Tunas to Sancti-Spiritus, I was told that he ordered the train to move very slowly, in order not to frighten his horses, which were using the road by the side of the track. Upon his arrival at the little town of Guasimal, he dismounted at the protective trench surrounding the town, and demanded to know of some of the onlookers, the whereabouts of the alcalde. Of course, the alcalde had heard of his coming, and was busily looking for the great military chief inside the town. It was apparent that Weyler had already concluded not to honor the town with his presence, so he stood biting his lips with a scowl marking his visage, until the alcalde was summoned into his presence.

Breathlessly the functionary hurried into the presence of the august chief, who demanded to know if he was not aware of his being the chief authority of the land, and that his place was to meet

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him without waiting to be sent for. The alcalde tremblingly informed the Captain-General that he had been busily engaged in attending to the arrangements for his reception. Scarcely heeding his apology, Weyler demanded to know how many volunteers he had in the place. The alcalde replied that there were none, and in reply to the next question "why?" he endeavored to explain that none of the residents of the town desired to do military duty, whereupon the chief thundered that the place was a hot-bed of insurgent sympathizers, and that was the reason. Then he inquired the number of regulars doing garrison duty in the place.

"Eighty men," replied the alcalde.

"Too many to protect the property of rebel sympathizers!" exclaimed Weyler, and he gave orders to have all but eight of the garrison incorporated into his own ranks, at the same time mulcting the alcalde in the sum of $100. As if to show his further contempt for the place, he refused the breakfast prepared in anticipation of his arrival, but, calling for some country cheese, he ate it with some of the hard biscuit furnished for the soldiers.

At the next town to which he came, the alcalde showed him a list of twenty-five volunteers, whereupon the General declared the town to be a loyal one, and as a reward for the faithful disposition of his subjects he added to its garrison, twenty regular soldiers.

An example of Weyler's peculiar methods may be shown in another instance. In certain districts of Cuba some fine brands of coffee are grown, which are highly appreciated in the towns. As a war measure, the rebel government decreed that none of this coffee should be taken into any of the towns or villages under pain of death. As the insurgents allowed no one in the country where the coffee was grown, and having hanged those who had shown a disposition to violate their decrees, it was an easy matter for them to have a monopoly, at least of the coffee. Almost immediately that Weyler became aware of this fact he published his decree, prohibiting the planters from gathering their crops at all. That the planter, if a loyalist, was unable to gather his crop, while, if an insurgent, was unaffected by any of Weyler's decrees, is apparent.

Owing to the irresolute character of the Cuban, Weyler has been able to take the field and continue his hide-and-seek game with the few armed patriots who have remained in the field. Strange as it may seem, the Spanish General-in-Chief has lacked determination, or military ability to crush any one band of insurgents, but has rather carried on his warfare by the slow process of starvation, which in a fertile island like Cuba, is extremely slow, while the Cubans have simply waited. I have known the Spanish columns in the field to avoid meeting a small band of armed insurgents, although, when properly officered, there is no disputing the fact that the Spanish soldier will fight. The operations of the columns consist chiefly of marching back and forth through the country, slaying cattle, digging up potato gardens, and cutting down banana plants, and even this work is not done thoroughly. While on my journey in search of Gomez, my attention was called to a plantation of bananas which the soldiers had attempted to destroy. In that part of the field bordering the road, they had swung their machetes most successfully, clipping off the tops of the plants, but where the field was bordered by dense forest, it was not damaged, owing to the soldiers' fear of lurking insurgents.

Occasionally one of the columns is fired upon by ten or a dozen rebels. The Spaniards will return their fire in company volleys, seldom making any determined effort to capture their enemies, and after using a great deal of ammunition in useless firing, they return to the centre of operations and report an action in which they have killed about twice as many men as were actually opposed to them.

Almost every one, who has attempted to explain Weyler's inability to put down the insurrection, has accounted for it by stating that the Spaniards do not desire to terminate the lamentable condition of affairs, owing to the opportunity presented to them for private gain. While we listen to the reasons for this belief, we are told, almost in the same breath, that Spain is bankrupt, the island of Cuba ruined, and the army unpaid for months past. Although there is no doubt that a Spanish officer will avail himself of an opportunity to put money in his pocket as quickly as will one of our own politicians, it is a hard matter

for him to do so when there is not money enough to pay his own salary and that of his subalterns. Judging from my own knowledge of the Spaniards in this war, I do not believe that there is a single Spanish officer in Cuba to-day, or soldier either, who would not throw up his hat with joy upon hearing that the war was at an end and that they were about to go home. That Spain is bankrupt, that she has not paid her troops for six months, and that she or her officers are continuing the war for the money there is in it, is a statement, the fallacy of which even our newspaper correspondents should at once see.

The situation in Cuba at present is this. The Island is divided in half by the Jucaro-Moron Trocha. To the east of the Trocha, the cities and towns are in the hands of the Spaniards, while the country is practically under the control of the insurgents, just as the country west of the Trocha was before Weyler took the field. My last information from the extreme western province, Pinar del Rio, was to the effect that the blockade had been raised from the Spanish towns and that the pacificos were allowed once more to go into the fields and till the soil. I am also told that there are no insurgents there, save a few scattered bands, who remain in the hills and fly before the approaching columns. The great central provinces, lying between Pinar del Rio and the Trocha, are practically uninhabited, except by wandering bands of rebels, and wherever there may be a suitable force of Spanish soldiers. General Gomez is still roaming around between the bushes and the savannas, in the vicinity of Sancti-Spiritus. When I last saw him he had with him 130 armed men, and about an equal number of servants. Although the Spanish troops were continually on the move about him, they were unable either to surround or to capture him. They were eminently successful, however, in breaking up the provisional government's system of prefecturas, workshops, etc. The famous "Siguenea," that supposedly impregnable stronghold, where the insurgents had their hospitals, etc., and which it was inferred the Spanish soldiers never could or never would try to enter, has been repeatedly invaded, while the Cubans there who were secure in their belief of safety have been scattered like chaff before the wind. To prevent insurgent reoccupation of the mountainous country, the Spaniards are busily engaged in constructing little forts all through it, such as they maintained in the last war.

It is foolish for the Cuban, and his sympathizing newspaper correspondent, to say that in spite of Weyler's cruel war upon the pacifico, he has not been successful, and that the insurrection is stronger than ever. As has been confessed to me in the field, since the death of Maceo, the insurgents have steadily lost strength; and, when it is too late, the Cuban *laborante* in this country will wake up to the fact that he has been deceived by the imbecile reports from Key West, inventions of Havana correspondents who have never seen a real live rebel in their lives.

Weyler has announced that the western half of the island is now pacified, and that as soon as the winter campaign opens, he will move his troops to the other side of the Trocha, and then put into effect the same plan of campaign as he has carried out in the west. If the armed insurgents there, under General Carlixto Garcia, cannot make a better showing for themselves than those under Maximo Gomez, the poor pacifico will be made, as he has felt it in the West, to feel the brunt of the war, and eventually Cubans and their sympathizers in this country will be convinced that battles cannot be fought, and independence won, by waiting for the enemy to get tired and go home. Surely if the independence is worth having, it is worth fighting for. We might ask those prophets who tell us that they can foresee, and who predict almost to a day when the Spaniards will have to withdraw, what will Gomez and his army do when that great "scuttling" takes place, upon finding themselves in possession of a city like Havana, after their three years of bushwhacking.

THOMAS R. DAWLEY, JR.

* * *

The magnitude of the sacrifices made by Spain in her attempts to subdue her revolting colonies, remarks the London "Spectator," is seen in the official figures issued by the Spanish Minister of War. The following forces were sent to Cuba between Nov., 1895, and May, 1897: Thirteen expeditions, comprising 181,738 men, 6,261 officers, and 40 Generals; and 91 guns and 12 quick-firing guns. If this tragedy of a nation were not so infinitely pathetic there would be something comic in these 40 Generals utterly helpless before a mob of ragged insurgents.

COLLEGE EDUCATION, AND ITS ADVANTAGES*

HERE is by no means an agreement among thinking people as to the real value of College or University training. This is a live question; for if such training is not of high importance, civilized communities are committing a great blunder in donating vast amounts to these institutions. It would be another of those purposeless wastes of labor and of money, of which all ages have been guilty, while many parents, who have exercised economies for years to send their boys to college, would have imposed those exacting and laborious self-denials upon themselves for nothing; and thousands of ambitious and impecunious youths, who have struggled and are struggling to pay their way through college, would have made a sad misdirection of their efforts. This is a serious matter.

Is the college course necessary? Is it really valuable? Is it calculated to give a young man an advantage in life, to make him more capable of helping himself, or benefiting the world, or doing work of a high order? Two generations ago, the question was considered to have but one side; but in our time it has been raised anew and considered from various aspects of the matter. It should be settled, in order that men who think of giving their money to such institutions should know what they are doing; in order that parents, who are considering whether they will send or not send their children to college, should know how to decide; in order that young people who are being urged to enter upon a college course, or to stay at home when they have the opportunity for college education, should know what they are doing. There ought to be such clear ideas as to matters of advantage and of disadvantage, in regard to this question, that no one need hesitate.

Taking up the plea against the colleges, we are told over and over again of the many celebrated characters who have risen to prominence and efficiency without college training. Among these are cited some of the Presidents of the United States. We are also told of the number of well-known writers, statesmen, and philosophers who have not been college-bred. It is impossible to argue from persons of exceptional ability; the men and women of genius are so abundantly endowed that they will make a way for themselves, in spite of all disadvantage. The fact that a great man makes a mark in the world without college training, is not to be accepted as a demonstration that the average person does not need the college, nor even that the great man would not have been benefited by such training.

In the case of several of our Presidents, who have been cited as instances of success without college training, it has been overlooked that the West Point school gives as thorough a drill as any college, and that General Grant, for instance, must be set down among the college men, on that ground. This point of view would also include a large number of the most celebrated generals on both sides in our Civil War; it would also include the leaders in our war with Mexico, and in the War of 1812. We are also to notice that Thomas Jefferson, a President of the United States, was a man who was so impressed by the value of colleges, that he became the founder of one. We are also to notice that the chief men of the Confederacy, Robert E. Lee, and Stonewall Jackson, were advocates of the higher learning, for the one was a college president and the other a college professor.

Among our great statesmen Daniel Webster was easily the greatest, for the solidity of his thought and the valuable body of work which he has left behind; and he was a college man. It is impossible to imagine that Washington or Lincoln would have been injured in any way by a college training; and it is conceivable that, extraordinary and talented as these men were, they might have been profited in several respects. We are not to overlook the fact that a large number of very successful men, who have been denied the privilege of college training, have frankly stated their feeling of loss on that account. One might have

* Though not designed in any way as a rejoinder to the article which appeared in the August number of this magazine on "The Self-Culture of the World's Workers," the present paper gives the arguments for the other side of the question, and aims to prove that the self-made man would benefit by a college education.
—ED. S. C.

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thought that so successful an actor as Edwin Booth was quite eminent enough without a regular education; but frequently, in his letters and conversations, he reproached his father for having denied him, when he had ample means, the education which he himself had received. It is well known that Disraeli drove John Bright to the study of history, by his taunts in the House of Commons upon his ignorance of facts, which if he had been a University man, would have been a part of his education.

We are told that Herbert Spencer has performed a gigantic task without having been a University man; but it is really no arrogance to claim, at this day, when Spencer's work has been examined and discussed for many years, that in some respects it is conceivable that Spencer would have avoided a number of rocks on which he has struck, if he had been thoroughly trained as a youth in Cambridge or Oxford. Who will not agree that our wonderful Walt Whitman would have been made less barbarous and no less poetic if he had been a college-bred man? We are told that Shakespeare was not a University man; but let us remember that John Milton was, and so far as style is concerned Milton is, the superior of any man who ever wrote English.

We have been told that colleges make people impractical; that some employers do not want a college-bred man about. It is conceivable that some employers are small enough to dislike the neighborhood of any superiority. It is also possible that a college education, by fitting one for a higher class of work, unfits him for a lower. That is in some measure well.

Is it not a good thing that in these utilitarian times influences are brought to bear, which give some of our citizens ideals that seem impractical to the wholly sordid? Yet Mr. C. A. Dana of the New York "Sun," says that he prefers to have a reporter who can scan Horace or read Livy; that he will report a dog-fight better than a man without classical education.

When we consider the large number of successful lawyers and physicians, writers, railroad presidents, politicians and financiers who are college-bred, we need not fret over-much about the impeachment of college training as impractical.

We are a new country and have tried many experiments and have had many heresies; but before we give ear seriously to the heresy of advocating the abolition or the belittling of college education, let us be sure of our lessons from experience. Call the roll of the great English writers, historians, poets, novelists and essayists, and we will find that most and the greatest of them, have, with rare exceptions, been college men. In the list are Bacon and Milton, Swift and Johnson, Wordsworth and Byron, Shelley and Tennyson, Browning and Carlyle. Take the statesmen or the warriors of England, and the same fact appears.

It goes without saying that Universities cannot make great men without the materials. There were great men before there were Universities; that king of men, Agamemnon, no doubt was without a college course, and there were great men even before him. But even so far back as the times of Moses, we find that the mighty law-giver had been trained in the great University of Egypt. The brightest minds of Athens and of Rome enjoyed what was equivalent to our college training. The bright lights of the Middle Ages were generally University men; a large per cent. of the bright lights of modern times are graduates of our higher seats of learning.

Nor must we overlook the fact that the greatest of our American writers have been college men; Bryant and Longfellow, Lowell and Holmes and Emerson. The most accomplished editor to-day in our country, Charles A. Dana, is a college-bred man. Over against him may be cited the instance of Horace Greeley; but while Greeley's influence was vast, and his knowledge prodigious, his work, for wisdom and sound-mindedness and philosophical breadth, was by no means equal to that of Dana. And the "Tribune" at its best under Greeley, whatever it does now, never influenced in the same way the intelligence of the country as the New York "Sun" does to-day.

The fact is pointed out that such accomplished writers as Howells, Henry James, and Aldrich are not college men. The claim made for the colleges, is not that one can never be a great writer, or statesman, or leader in any department, without a college course; such a claim would be nonsense. But the claim is, that the greatest and best will be helped

in their work, and in its perfecting, by a regular education; and that the average person will be made vastly more efficient by a college course.

It is not necessary to assert or claim, in order to justify the maintenance of colleges and their patronage, that every one who has an ambition to excel must forthwith go through a college curriculum. The college course, manifestly, is not for everybody; not for the people without means to pursue the course; not for those who are pressed with duties or for the means of a livelihood that will not allow an intermission for six years; it may not be for persons of extraordinary genius, although Napoleon was drilled in a military school that was equivalent to a college, and although the rosters of the English, Irish, and Scotch Universities contain the names of the greater number of the celebrities of Great Britain.

The college course comes in a period of life when the mind is most capable of impressions and of training; so that the years of study in a college drill and strengthen the mind for future acquisition and reception of knowledge. If, during the same period the youth is left to himself, he turns to books at all, he is likely to read in an unsystematic way, and to cram a large amount of undigested information. The college course gives the foundation for systematic knowledge, teaches how to study, and indicates to the student where to find knowledge.

We are of the opinion of Carlyle, that "the true University nowadays, is a library of books;" but no inconsiderable part of the library of books had better be studied under the tuition of masters in a University. One may obtain the same knowledge of facts in his own library, as in a college, but the amount of mental drill will not be the same.

Let us consider, for a moment, the work of some celebrated men who have not been college bred. We hold with many that such an uncommon man as Robert Burns could have been helped into a much broader and deeper kind of work than that which he performed, if he had been educated at one of the great Universities. Instead of being one of the minor singers, instead of being a spring by the wayside, as Carlyle calls him, Burns undoubtedly had the capabilities of producing work of much greater range and depth than he did. A University, and then a great library, would have helped him to this. The college training not only widens the horizon, and adds to the range of the mind, but it gives a soundness to the judgment, and a logicalness to the mental operations which are usually lacking in men who have not received this training.

The novelist W. D. Howells is a shining example of a *littérateur* without college training; he has undoubtedly been a steadfast student of many subjects; and on account of his native ability and his acquirements, it goes without saying that he can "give points" to the majority of his college-bred fellow-citizens. Nevertheless, one can conceive that a course at Harvard or Yale would have given him something in his mental equipment that he does not possess. It is conceivable that his critical work and his literary judgments would have been of a sounder kind, if in youth he had sat at the feet of experts in intellectual drill. To appreciate what is lacking in him, one need but lay some of his work alongside that of Matthew Arnold, or of James Russell Lowell — both University men. In these latter great writers one finds on occasion a quality that makes Howells, to speak the truth, seem crude.

So long as men need to learn from each other, and from the generations that are gone; so long as one can learn painting better from the direct tuition of a painter than from books; so long as music needs to be taught; just so long will youths learn best to think and study by sitting at the feet of those who have themselves been long practiced in the art of thinking and of studying.

Instead of considering in these modern times the question of less education, there is a crying need that every man and woman who thinks, and who appreciates the wrong tendencies of the age, should exert all possible influences on behalf of the higher education. Against the floods of demoralizing literature; against the multitude of crude and dangerous ideas of the present day; against the half-thinking which is captivating and misleading so many; against the mental inertia which is upon many minds, and which indisposes them to anything more than indifferentism, we need to place the bulwarks of the highest education. We are proud of the fact that we live in a

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time when everybody can read, and when everybody does read something. We call this progress; but the question is: What do they read? And how do they read? How many people really know the greatest thinkers; the thoughts of the soundest, sanest, most comprehensive writers of the world? We are proud of the fact that in our time everybody thinks; but the question is: What kind of thinking do they do? Is it merely that minds are unsettled from first principles; that the thinking is principally of a negative and denying kind? Are not the minds of a large number of people very receptive of half-truths and of crude ideas?

We are convinced that the drilling of young men and women in our colleges and universities, in wide and comprehensive habits of thought, is one of the most valuable services being done to our nation and to civilization. While all honor must be given to the great and gifted people who have been leaders without college training, and while we would offer no word of discouragement, as to his future, to any young person who may find it impossible to pass through a college training, nevertheless, we feel justified, by the testimony of history, and by the experience of the present, in saying that college-education is of the utmost value; that every young man and woman will be wise to take this training, if it is at all possible; that rich men cannot deserve better of their country than by giving liberally to these great schools; that the college-bred men and women are the salt of the earth; and that the colleges and universities are blazing centres of light for the eyes of all people.

CALVIN DILL WILSON.

THE PLEASURES OF LIFE

THE practice whereby men of eminence in the various lines of politics, science or literature, give to the "dim common populations," in the condensed form of addresses or essays, the benefit of their experience of life, seems to gain ground and to become more and more successful. Sir John Lubbock's pleasant little volume on "The Pleasures of Life," has now reached its twentieth edition and is issued by The Macmillan Company, New York, in an authorized American edition. In this precious book, too little known to American readers, Sir John comes forward as an observer of life and student of literature, in order to impart to others the compensation and consolations he has derived from both. The book is what we may regard as a very taking picture of what used to be called, in the days of Miss Edgeworth, a "well-regulated mind;" that is, a mind that insists on the duty of happiness and rejoices in the happiness of duty; that exults in the inexhaustible treasure of books, and has a happy art in selecting them; that is grateful for the blessing of friends, that enjoys the pleasures of travel, home and scientific research.

In the study not only of books but also of animal life and experimental science, Sir John Lubbock, the banker, scholar and naturalist, has found his greatest happiness, and his chapter on science is a very happy one. "Science," he says, "is full of variety. It is a mistake to deem it dry, difficult or prosaic. The imagination of man has no such poetry in it as can be furnished by natural phenomena. A naturalist ought to be no dry collector, whose bottles contain all his knowledge." In corroboration, he quotes from Ruskin and Huxley the famous saying: "Let the atoms arrange themselves in place according to nature, and you have the opal. Separate the clay and it becomes a white earth, jet for the finest porcelain, or, if it still further purifies itself, you have the sapphire. Take the soot and, if properly treated, it will give the diamond."

"Suppose," says Huxley, "it were perfectly certain that the life and fortune of every one of us would, one day or other, depend upon winning a game of chess, don't you think that we should all consider it to be a primary duty to learn at least the names and moves of the pieces? Do you think that we should look with a disapprobation amounting to scorn upon the father who allowed his son, or the State that allowed its members, to grow up without knowing a pawn from a knight? Yet it is a very plain and elementary truth that the life, the fortune

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and the happiness of every one of us, and more or less of those who are connected with us, depend on our knowing the rules of a game infinitely more difficult and complicated than chess. It is a game which has been played for untold ages, every man and woman of us being one of the two players of his or her own. The chess board is the world, the pieces are the phenomena of the universe, the rules of the game are what we call the Laws of Nature. The player on the other side is hidden from us. We know that the player is always fair, just, and patient. But, also, we know to our cost that he never overlooks a mistake or makes the smallest allowance for ignorance. To the man that plays well, the highest stakes are paid; and who plays ill, is checkmated without haste, but without remorse." In our present time, with all the museums and galleries to which we have access, nobody has any excuse for being dull. "What, dull!" the author exclaims, "when earth, air and water are alike mysterious to you, when all the time Nature is inviting you to talk earnestly with her, to understand her, to subdue her, to be blessed by her! Go away, man; learn something, do something, understand something, and let me hear no more of your dulness."

And yet, with this cultivated mind, with this happy and rich intelligence which derives every new delight from scientific research, the author, according to his own confession, is rather prone to suffer from low spirits, is subject to acts of depression, which all the admirable thoughts that his mind is saturated with cannot keep afar. From this confession we are to suppose that the author has tried, in publishing essays, not only to diffuse gladness among his readers, but also to administer to himself a certain amount of consolation. There is, nevertheless, a deep sense of relief in ascertaining that even a mind nourished on all this, through learning and elevated thought, should not be absolutely guaranteed against depression. It shows that the author himself, even after he has taken to heart all these beautiful counsels, does not find in his own ideals a satisfaction so deep that he can deny the existence of a considerable void to be filled up.

In truth, much as we enjoy reading these charming addresses of his, we protest against the author's ideal as a whole. The essays imply that human nature can be, what it cannot be, self-centred, and yet intelligent, happy and benignant; in other words, that personal bliss depends upon the exercise of the will. As the text of this address, Sir John Lubbock takes the lesson given to the world by the example and maxims of Epictetus, the grand old Stoic slave. But the Stoic's supreme maxim, that "if a man is unhappy this must be his own fault," is a supreme mistake. Not every man can make his soul as transparent, as adamantine, as the philosophizing slave's. We all were, and are, and never will cease to be, the footballs of circumstances outside of our control. There are millions of human beings whose causes of unhappiness are so deeply founded and so incurable, that to address them with consolations derived from book-reading, or company-keeping, or travelling, or the investigation of Nature, would almost be ridiculous. There is an impregnable malady lurking in the depth of human nature, the hypochondria, which Epictetus distinctly understood, but for which he had certainly not found the cure, though he gave it out so loudly that he cured himself of it. The deep-rootedness of this malady has at all times been a matter of such firm conviction with the most clear-minded geniuses, that upon this basis the most sagacious philosophical systems have been built.

Only a few years ago it was quite the fashion to praise and emulate men who derived not a little of their fame from manifesting the hypochondriac mood. Carlyle created a school which attributed a high moral value to this mental malady; and we can all of us remember what an influence he had by introducing the elements of hypochondria into the literature of England, in spite of the fact that he opened to us many new glimpses into the true causes of human melancholy and the confusions of the universe. "Poor Cromwell! Great Cromwell!" he wrote in his "Hero Worship,"—"the Inarticulate Prophet; the prophet who could not speak. Rude, confused, struggling to utter himself, with his savage depth, his visions of the devil, his semi-madness, his chaotic confusion; and yet such a clear, determinate man's energy working in the heart of that man! Consider him.

A kind of unformed black of darkness, with the ray as of pure, startling fire working in it. And yet, withal, this hypochondria, what was it but the very greatness of the man? Samuel Johnson, too, is that kind of a man. Sorrow-stricken, half-distracted; the strong element of mournful black enveloping him. It is the character of a prophetic man; a man with his whole soul seeing and struggling to see." Undoubtedly Carlyle got hold of men who were not very genuine men; indeed, his pupils were admittedly more injured than helped by these doctrines of his.

It is gratifying to contrast the ideal of Sir John Lubbock's addresses with that of Carlyle's lectures. Sir John confesses himself to be just as unable as the great Scotch philosopher was and as any mortal being will ever be, to suggest any effectual remedy against melancholy. But we feel, notwithstanding, how much better for the purpose of impressing those who are looking out for guidance in the way of self-education, are Sir Lubbock's counsels than are Carlyle's. And there is every reason to anticipate that the author's hope "to exercise a beneficent influence by letting others partake of the thoughts from which he had himself drawn some consolation," will be fully realized.

Sir John in his volume on "The Pleasures of Life" has, however, it seems to me, omitted a very serious and important statement. His obvious purpose, in publishing these pleasant essays, has been to point out for the benefit of his readers an efficient remedy for that inherited malady of mankind, melancholy. But he forgets that melancholy is a malady, monopolized, as it were, by the more elevated and leisurely spirits; that the average man whom Sir John Lubbock is addressing in his book finds his time taken up in the pursuit of his business and has but little leisure left for the perusal of some useful book, or for some other mental recreation. He has certainly no time to everlastingly muse over some transcendental problem — an occupation which invariably results in melancholy. There is an enemy to human happiness far more dangerous, — more dangerous because spread all over the broad strata of average society, — of that "every day" mankind which, unfortunately, has no time for melancholy. This enemy is the assiduous, relentless, feverish hunt after money. The worship of Mammon is the most dreadful stumbling-block in the way of happiness; and Sir John Lubbock has entirely omitted to call due attention to, and to suggest any expedient for the subduing of, this "dearest foe" of mankind.

There is the homely story of the farmer's wife who, when her husband had settled in a new country, declared "that she did not wish to be rich, that all she asked was to be comfortable." Time passed on, and when the farmer told the story about his spouse, he said: "I am now worth one hundred thousand dollars, and my wife is not *comfortable* yet." A truer illustration of human nature was never found. Let a man begin with ever so moderate an estimate of the amount of fortune with which he will be content, the passion "grows with what it feeds upon." Most men start in life with the wish to acquire a "competency." But competency becomes a thing as uncertain as the possibility of an old lady's becoming comfortable.

"But," it will be asked, "is the passion to become wealthy so utterly incompatible with a thorough and keen enjoyment of the pleasures of life? Experience preaches that it is. There are but few mortals who would not enter into business life with the very best and wisest resolutions for their guidance toward happiness. "I will not allow my affections to wither; I will keep a little time for myself for the culture of the beauties and the amenities of life; I will not forget to be charitable; my generosity shall increase with my income." So with self-deception man bends himself to his work, which grows upon him and demands more and more of his energies, till mind and strength are entirely given to its accomplishment, and all the nobler part of his nature lies decaying from disuse. *This* is the mainspring in the pursuit of wealth. It becomes so absorbing, so fascinating, that all other pursuits are swallowed up. Look upon the faces of business men who are trying to get rich rapidly. Their sharp and inquisitive glances do not seem familiar with searching into the mysteries of nature; their brows do not show the calm reflection of quiet hours spent in earnest meditation, or the fruit of choice reading, or the delight of travelling for pleasure,

or the wisdom of pursuing scientific investigation.

Sir John Lubbock, however, is certainly a benefactor to mankind for indicating those means for the mental elevation of our race; but if he had dared to ask his audience, one by one, if each one had ever tried, or were willing to try in the future, to make use of the noble expedients he sets forth, he would be sure to have a most disappointing experience. Most of his audience, and especially those of mature years and wise in the knowledge of this world's ways, would turn on him with surprise, if not with a sneer, for asking the question. They know of but one honorable, discreet and sensible object, one *genuine* pleasure in life — and that is to get rich, and not only rich, but in time to become richer. Our author's well-meant suggestions for the furtherance of human happiness are very deep, very good, to be sure — but we have so little time to think them over — and less time yet to practice them.

A man usually wants an excuse for devoting himself so exclusively to the acquisition of a fortune. A very common plea is that he is working for the welfare of his children — he wishes to leave them a "competency." A fatal mistake, and the children, so tenderly cared for, suffer most severely by it. The luxury in which they have been reared, the selfish ease, the soft indulgence and the pride of the purse, form a hotbed in which strength and goodness seldom grow. Milton has presented Mammon

"with downcast looks bent on the earth,"

as among the most degraded of the fallen angels. The histories of nations have always proved that they began to decay from the moment they gave themselves up to luxurious splendors, as a consequence of a too-vastly increased wealth. As there is no system of primogeniture in this country, there is not so much danger in building up large fortunes, in the course of years to be scattered again.

But it is to be wished that there should be seen less of that master passion; that we should see men living to die well, instead of to die rich. Some people plead that war is a necessity. Others assert that it is better for the world generally that vast riches should be acquired by the few; else the fine arts, the master works of genius, the products of large and useful factories could not be patronized. We believe there will be a time when war will *not* be a necessity; we believe that it has at no time been necessary to rob the many in order to aggrandize the few. All of the objects calculated for the welfare of society advance more surely if the eager pursuit of inordinate gain is allowed to absorb less of the brain, less of the heart, less of the soul, of nations; and when, instead of Mammon, such noble pursuits as are enumerated by Sir John Lubbock become the talisman of life, and with happiness shall enter into every household.

C. A. Bratter.

BATHS AND BATHING, IN THEIR HISTORICAL AND HYGIENIC ASPECTS*

IT is a common observation that many of the ordinary practices of humanity to-day had at some time a religious significance. Even the art of bathing did not escape this stage in its development; and what is to-day regarded merely as a cleansing agent was for centuries looked upon as a sacred religious rite or ceremonial for the removal of legal pollution or as the symbol of repentance. Every Bible reader will recollect how the Jew who came into contact with certain diseases, or who ate the flesh of animals which had died of themselves, was commanded to bathe, and was considered unclean until the evening of the day he had done so. Nor were the Jews alone in regarding the bath as a religious ceremonial. In many other localities, regular ablutions and immersions of the body were made compulsory; and we find that baths and bath-houses were established at an early day in India, Persia, Assyria, and Egypt. Even the vapor bath, now widely known as the

* See the article on Baths in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. III, p. 434.

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Russian, has existed in Japan for centuries, while a modification of it was found in Mexico when Cortez discovered that country. The ancient Irish and Scotch are said to have utilized it to some extent. The Turkish or hot air bath is also of undoubted antiquity. It is in fact not Turkish at all, having been invented by the Lacedæmonians; its subsequent introduction into Europe by the Turks created the impression that the Mohammedans were its originators.

Among the Jews, the art of bathing has always been highly regarded, and the religious significance attached to it has not been dissipated even to the present day. Regular ablutions of the body were ordered by Moses to be taken before the daily meals, before wedding festivities, before birth celebrations, before entering the temple of worship, and before all religious ceremonies. Hebrew girls and women were commanded by strict laws to bathe at regular monthly intervals, a custom still widely prevalent among the orthodox Jews of to-day. The Jews understood little of any form of bathing save immersion in pools and rivers; they were unacquainted with vapor or air or other artificial baths. The Old Testament abounds with references to bathing. The first historical bath in the Bible is that of Pharaoh's daughter, who went down to the Nile to bathe, and there discovered the infant Moses, whom it was her kismet to save in order that he might lead the chosen people to the promised land. That the Jews were agreed that personal cleanliness is a virtue, many scriptural references show. Thus Elisha, the prophet, directs Naaman, the leper, to bathe seven times in the River Jordan, while Jesus commands the blind man to bathe in the pool of Siloam. The waters of Bethesda were regarded as of great healing quality among the Hebrews, and were widely used for bathing purposes.

The "chosen people" are to-day as hearty advocates of the bath as they were in ancient times, although this is sometimes difficult to believe when one encounters a poor Polish or Russian Jew to whom water and soap appear to be entire strangers. This is due, however, to the fact that these poorer Jews live in quarters where no bathing facilities exist. Mr. Zangwill, in his "Children of the Ghetto," tells an amusing story of one of these Jews, which yet contains an element of pathos. It appears that the Jew's holiest day is *Yom Kippur*, or the Day of Atonement; on that day he fasts from morn till eve, and however he may have neglected the bathing regulations on other days, he is sure to bathe on the afternoon preceding this greatest of days. The Jew of whom Mr. Zangwill writes was hurrying home on the afternoon in question, in order to bathe before sunset, at which the day of fasting begins, when he was stopped by a friend, whom he brushed aside, frantically shrieking, "Don't stop me, for Heaven's sake! I missed my bath last year." It is amusing, of course, and probably an invention of Mr. Zangwill's fertile brain; but it illustrates how the Jew regards the bath as a devotional exercise. The ordinance of baptism originated with the Jews, it being, in fact, their prescribed form for the admission of women proselytes into covenant with God in the Jewish Church.

Among the ancient Greeks, bathing was regarded largely as a hygienic measure; a necessity in a nation that looked upon physical development and perfection as one of the aims of life. The houses of the wealthy Greeks contained tub baths, while swimming and river bathing were widely practiced. Even douche baths must have been in vogue among them, for such a bath is shown on a Grecian vase now in the Royal Museum at Berlin. We learn from Homer that not only cold bathing but hot water baths must have been established over three thousand years ago, for he mentions their use in the Greek camp during the siege of Troy. Diomed and Ulysses were refreshed by the bath on returning from a night expedition:

"Now, from nocturnal sweat and sanguin stain
They cleanse their bodies in the neighboring main;
Then, in the polished bath, refreshed from toil,
Their joints they supple with dissolving oil."

And Ulysses gives a glowing description of the bath prepared for him by the nymphs of Circe, thus:

"In the tripod o'er the kindled pile
The water pours; the bubbling waters boil;
An ample vase receives the smoking wave,
And in the bath prepared my limbs I lave;
Reviving sweats prevent the mind's decay,
And take the painful sense of toil away."

Medical baths were also known at that time, the hot sulphur baths at Thermopylæ being highly regarded for the cure of diseases. At a later day the

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gymnasiums of the Greeks generally had baths attached, which were used not merely as a matter of luxury and pleasant sensation, but chiefly for the sake of cleanliness and healthy exercise.

All the baths and bathing-houses of antiquity pale into insignificance beside those of the ancient Romans, who made the bath an institution of the State, and who showed, by their costly and magnificent bathing-houses, how highly they regarded it. So splendid were these establishments that even the ruins of them are to-day the most interesting sights of the Eternal City. In earliest times the Romans bathed in the Tiber; subsequently, cold swimming baths were introduced and proved popular. In the time of Clodius public baths began to be common in Rome and other cities, while in the course of time private baths were attached to the villas of the wealthier citizens. Mæcenas was one of the first Roman rulers to build public baths at his own expense. After his time, each Roman emperor, as he wished to ingratiate himself with the people, lavished the revenues of the state on costly and magnificent buildings, containing not merely suits of bathing apartments, in which one could take swimming, warm, hot air, or vapor baths, but also gymnasia, and at times even theatres and libraries. Such establishments were called *thermæ*. They were established by Agrippa, Nero, Titus, Domitian, Commodus, and by Caracalla, Diocletian, and Constantine. The historian Gibbon (chap. 31), thus speaks of them:

"The stupendous aqueducts, so justly celebrated by the praises of Augustus himself, replenished the thermæ or baths, with imperial magnificence. The baths of Antoninus Caracalla, which were open at stated hours for the indiscriminate service of the senators and the people, contained above sixteen hundred seats of marble, and more that three thousand were reckoned in the baths of Diocletian. The walls of the lofty apartments were covered with curious mosaics that imitated the art of the pencil in the elegance of design and the variety of colors. The Egyptian granite was beautifully encrusted with the precious green marble of Numidia, the perpetual stream of hot water was poured into the capacious basins through so many wide mouths of bright and massy silver; and the meanest Roman could purchase, with a small copper coin, the daily enjoyment of a scene of pomp and luxury which might excite the envy of the kings of Asia. From these stately palaces issues a swarm of dirty and ragged plebeians, without shoes and without a mantle, who loitered away whole days in the street or Forum, to hear news, or to hold disputes; who dissipated, in extravagant gaming, the miserable pittance of their wives and children."

Oils and pomades were used by the wealthy, but the poor contented themselves by utilizing flour of lentils, still widely used in place of soap among oriental nations. The pomp and luxury of these bathing customs continued until the downfall of Rome, which is ascribed by many historians to the enervated race of people which the Romans had made of themselves by indulging immoderately in hot baths. These they utilized not for purposes of cleanliness but for the pleasing physical sensations produced.

To this fact may be ascribed the statements of the early fathers of the Christian Church, who wrote that bathing might be practiced for cleanliness or health but not for pleasure. The Romans continued, however, to practice it for pleasure until the middle of the fifth century, when the cutting of the aqueducts by the Huns, as well as the decrease in the city's population, caused the largest of the thermæ to fall into decay. In the East, however, at Alexandria and Brusa, the institution flourished in full vigor. The Mohammedans subsequently learned how to give hot air and vapor baths, and through the Arabs these were introduced into Spain.

At a later period the Turks "carried the innovation high up the Danube." The great development of the vapor bath in Europe is due to the fact that in the time of the crusaders it was looked upon as a specific for the leprosy, then so prevalent. The use of this particular form of bathing spread very rapidly, until after the beginning of the thirteenth century there were few European cities that did not contain vapor baths as well as separate vapor baths for lepers. The Jews were usually allowed to visit the vapor baths but once a week. In England, these baths were called hot-houses. Erasmus, at the time of the Reformation, speaks of them as being common in France, Germany, and Belgium. He gives a lively description of the mixtures and classes of people to be found in them, and from his description it is probable that they were at that time adjuncts to inns. This form of bathing was popular for centuries, to the exclusion of river bathing, which Tacitus tells us the Germans enjoyed and practiced daily. It

was not until the eighteenth century that a revival of cold water bathing developed, and it remained for the hygienists of the present century to impress on the public mind the great usefulness of sea-water bathing, which had fallen into desuetude, but which has for some years been on the crest of a wave of popular approval and enthusiasm.

Up to the beginning of the Middle Ages bathing remained popular, but subsequently the practice degenerated and public baths were regarded as quite in the nature of a novelty when they were revived in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The earliest attempt in England in the direction of free baths was when, about the last quarter of the seventeenth century, the Duke of York provided in London a certain public bath called the Duke of York's Bagnio. Medals or tokens bearing the figure of a man for men's baths and a woman for women's baths, with the respective days of admission, were issued. These tokens are now extremely rare and may be regarded as one of the curiosities in the history of bathing. The first public baths and washhouses in England were erected at Liverpool, where the St. George's Pier Head Baths were opened in 1828. In 1849 the corporation of Liverpool increased their bathing and washing accommodation and erected two new establishments.

In London the movement was slow. In September, 1844, the Lord Mayor convened a meeting for the formation of an "association for promoting cleanliness among the people," which resulted in the establishment of one of the first bath houses in London — a building on Glasshouse Yard near the London docks. Such was the success of this establishment that its promoters erected a larger set of baths at Whitechapel, which, however, gradually fell into decay. "Semi-public philanthropy having pointed out the way," says a recent writer, "the matter was presented to the House of Lords, and a bill prepared which received the royal assent on the 26th of August, 1846." The baths authorized to be provided by the Act were swimming baths, warm and cold slipper or tub baths, vapor baths, and warm and cold shower baths. The Turkish or hot air bath was not generally known at the time, hence was not included. It has never been widely used in England. The bathing houses then inaugurated have always proved popular and their number has been constantly increased. Twenty-five parishes of London maintain thirty-one bathing establishments, of which twenty-seven have wash-houses in connection with them. The cost of seventeen of these baths for which figures are available was $2,784,385, and at twenty-three establishments there were last year 3,177,914 bathers and washers. None of these baths are free, the fees ranging from two cents for school children to twelve cents for a first-class swimming or private or warm bath. Islington, the largest parish in London, with 320,000 people, maintains three public baths at an initial outlay of $529,514. Turkish baths are now in prospect. The three baths were used by 721,575 persons in the year ending March 31, 1896. The receipts amounted to $45,783, and the working expenses to $47,857.

Germany also boasts of exceptionally fine public baths, of which the limits of the present article preclude a description. The Germans, with inherent common sense, early foresaw that tub bathing was not practicable for workingmen, who being grimy and sooty from their labor, soil the fluid immediately, and are then compelled to bathe in water that is not clean. This difficulty was obviated by the use of the inclined overhead tepid spray, an improvement that was first indicated and exhibited at the Berlin Health Exposition of 1883, where it met with instant appreciation and approval.

To the Germans is also due the credit of having first tried the experiment of rain baths in the public schools. The idea, however, originated with an Englishman, Dr. Alfred Carpenter, of Croydon, who first broached it in his lectures on preventive medicine in relation to public health. He contended that it would tend to purify greatly the air of schoolrooms, and at the same time teach children habits of cleanliness, which otherwise they might never learn in abodes that lacked proper bathing facilities. To Professor Huegge and Mayor Merkel of the town of Göttingen, in Germany, must be adjudged the honor of first carrying out the idea. The experiment was begun in 1885. Groups of children are bathed together. The baths are never given at or near the end

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of the school session, so that children run no risk of catching cold when going home. It is found that the children enjoy them and appear to be far more attentive and less restless after indulging in them; that the baths induce greater cleanliness in clothing and underwear; that the parents pay greater attention to the appearance of their children; and finally that the air of the schoolrooms has been greatly purified and improved. No doubt the little ones, thus early introduced to water, will remain bathers for life.

The important movement is rapidly becoming popular in Germany. In this country there are yet few school baths. One on the rain bath principle was erected at a high school at Scranton, Pennsylvania, two or three years ago, while swimming and rain baths (known universally among the people as "shower baths") have recently been placed in certain New York schools. The same class of bath has also been introduced with great success at the New York Juvenile Asylum, where, under a rain of warm water, two hundred and eighty children are bathed every hour. The movement will undoubtedly become popular in course of time. At present compulsory school baths are apt to be looked upon a little in the nature of an invasion of the personal right of the scholar to be dirty.

To supplement this sketch of the history of bathing, a brief description of the principal baths will be appropriate:

"Slipper" or "tub" baths are constantly becoming more popular in America, although at present not more than twenty-three per cent. of our houses contain them. Hygienists and sanitarians are, however, beginning to insist that they be made a feature of all dwellings and in course of time we may expect to see such a consummation. The most popular form of this bath among robust people is in the use of cold water — water of a temperature of thirty to sixty degrees Fahrenheit. The cold bath can hardly be called a cleansing ablution, being employed rather for its tonic and sedative effects. Unless the bather's constitution is vigorous, cold baths are apt to have a depressing and injurious effect upon him. Modifications of this bath consist in moderating the coolness of the water to suit peculiarities of taste and temperament.

Warm and tepid baths are used primarily for cleansing purposes and give an agreeable and refreshing sensation. They equalize the circulation, and their use is widely approved by physicians in a host of diseases. The hot tub bath — in water ninety-eight to one hundred and ten degrees Fahrenheit — is utilized chiefly in the treatment of sickness.

The Russian or vapor bath consists in the application of hot vapor, at a temperature varying from one hundred and twelve to two hundred degrees Fahrenheit. At first the bather is subjected to a moderately warm temperature which is increased gradually until he becomes inured to it. The head is surrounded with cloths wet in cold water, and cool water is given him to drink should he feel the necessity for it. Upon emerging from the hot rooms, he plunges into a cold bath, or receives a cool shower bath. The effect is tonic and cleansing, although in a lesser degree than in the Turkish bath. The original mode of administering a vapor bath, and one which can still be extemporized on an emergency almost anywhere, is by means of a tub, partly filled with water, and heated bricks and stones. The bather sits naked on a canebottomed or open-work chair, with a pair of blankets around his neck and extending over the tub, which is placed under the chair. A red-hot brick or stone is put into the water in the tub; the patient is instantly enveloped in steam, which may be continued or intensified as desired by the occasional addition of another vaporizer or brick, the quantity of steam and degree of heat being regulated by the frequency with which additional bricks or stones are added. This method of using the vapor bath has been found to exist among the original Mexicans and other aboriginal Americans.

The Turkish bath is really not a bath at all, for it consists in the application of dry, hot air, the perspiration which this application induces resulting in a thorough cleansing. The bather passes from one apartment to another, each being of a higher temperature than the preceding. The rapid evaporation of the perspiration is really a cooling process, and bathers consequently endure with comparative ease the intensely hot atmosphere to which they are subjected and find themselves able, with little inconvenience, to remain

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in a room heated to even two hundred and twenty degrees Fahrenheit. After emerging from the hottest room, they undergo a thorough shampooing, which removes all effete matter. The pores are closed by a plunge or shower bath. The Turkish bath is an agreeable luxury and an hygienic agent of great value. It should be made a feature of all public baths. At present such modes of bathing are entirely beyond the reach of the poor, who perhaps need them more than others. It is possible, however, to purchase, at a small price, home Turkish bath cabinets, and thus secure the benefit of either a Russian or Turkish bath at one's own home and at a minimum of expense.

Sea bathing is an excellent tonic, and is deservedly popular in America, especially in the East. No doubt much of the benefit usually ascribed to it is due to other causes, such as the incidental exercise, the fresh air, and the general freedom from care and routine. But there is no doubt that the bath has an excellent revitalizing effect upon the organs of the body.

The shower or rain bath is widely utilized in America, and is usually an adjunct of tub baths. The water produces an agreeable shock by coming into direct contact with the skin. The bather stands beneath the reservoir, and numerous small streams fall upon his head, neck and shoulders. It is employed either cold, tepid or hot, being moderated according to the ability of the bather to withstand the shock or induce reaction. As already indicated, this bath is popular in German schools, and is the best form for public bathing establishments. It is not only tonic, but cleansing as well.

The douche bath is a popular bath among athletes and students of physical culture. It is an excellent application for sprains or weak or stiff joints. A stream of water is dashed upon the bather from a distance. The effect is similar to the shower bath, save that it is intensified.

The foregoing are the principal baths in vogue, but advocates of the water-cure recommend a variety of others, a few of which deserve notice. For instance, there is the sponge bath, which consists of the application to the body of water through the medium of a sponge, and is well adapted to invalid patients. The foot bath, or immersion of the feet in water, is known to everybody. The sitz-bath, or immersion of thighs, hips, and abdomen, is making great headway. Then there are sulphur and other medical baths, as well as the wet sheet pack, which is used in inducing perspiration in cases of fevers and similar morbid states.

Bathing is one of the hygienic agents which, in course of time, will sound the knell of drug medication, each year being discarded more and more, as people learn that hygienic living can obviate the need of medicine and prevent most human physical ills. As public bathing establishments multiply in America — where at present the very few that exist are regarded as novelties — we may expect to see a healthier and cleaner generation, better fitted to cope with the hard work and taxing strain of life.

OSCAR HERZBERG.

Readers of Sir Walter Scott's "The Talisman" do not need to be told of Saladin's attempt, in the twelfth century, to drive the Christians from the Holy Land during the Third Crusade. Despite the Moslem forces of Syria and Egypt, which the famous Sultan brought against the chivalry of Europe, and the losses sustained by Barbarossa's army, Saladin, we know, was unable to prevent the capture of Acre and Jerusalem, and the menace to Ascalon, and had to accept the truce which Richard Cœur de Lion forced upon him. The story is one of the most romantic in the world's history. Additional interest has just been given to it by the publication, the other day, of a contemporary Life of Saladin by an Arabic writer, which gives vividly the whole Arabian story of the Third Crusade, from the siege of Acre to the close of the negotiations for peace with Richard of England. The work is mainly one for the student of Oriental literature, though the general reader will find it replete with interest. It has been translated for the Palestine Exploration Fund Committee of London, by Colonel Conder, LL.D., with a preface and notes by Major-general Sir Charles Wilson, K.C.B., of the Palestine Exploration Survey. The writer of the book, Beha-ed-Din, was a learned professor at Bagdad who afterwards entered Saladin's service, and on the eve of the Third Crusade was appointed Kadi of the army, accompanying his master throughout the course of the war. In this way "he gives to the narrative of events during that period the importance belonging to the testimony of an eye-witness, who had the additional advantage of being in close touch with the actors."

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THE AMERICAN INDIAN IN LITERATURE:

HISTORIC, POETIC, AND FICTITIOUS

"THEY waste us; ay, like April snow
In the warm noon, we shrink away;
And fast they follow as we go
Towards the setting day—
Till they shall fill the land, and we
Are driven into the Western sea."
—BRYANT.

LITERATURE abounds in illustrations of the ingenuity of man. It is the creative genius and intellectual cunning of the human mind, stimulated and energized by a moral instinct, that has invested literature of a high order with an irresistible charm. The purely intellectual, as well as the æsthetic nature, responds to that quality of literary productions, whether of fiction, poetry or history, that traces faithfully the varied intricacies of human character, that artfully allures us into fascinating dreams while we contemplate the lofty conceptions of poetry, or that enables us to enjoy that which is beautiful, heroic, and sublime in the lives of men and nations who adorn the pages of history. Incidents and places of historic interest, as the result of immortality being conferred on them by the ingenuity of the poet or the historian, are impressed on the mind of the student with the charm of ever-living associations. Homer and Virgil have rendered forever sacred the memory of Troy and its siege, crystallizing in verse the deeds of the participating heroes. The golden age of Grecian civilization has been the theme of poets and historians for more than two thousand years. Troy, Thermopylæ, Marathon, and Waterloo, are the great shibboleths of the world's history; and they give the *entrée* to a profusion of rich and enjoyable literature. Their significance, however, grows dim as we contemplate them in the remote past, while the Western empire rises before us, still fresh in its history and natural features, with heroes unsung, and with an antiquity, comparatively speaking, unexplored.

The great forests of North America, forming but the outer edge of extensive geological domains lying behind and beneath them, waving in their primeval splendor, were but suggestions of the antiquity, sublime and majestic, of the continent which they adorned. Then why should we dwell with partiality upon the great things of the past, while embosomed in the history and traditions of the New World are infinitely rich and varied materials for intellectual architecture, only awaiting the skill of the artist to build them into beauty and grandeur! Such resources have not, could not, fail to command the attention and bring into play the artifice of many who have attained eminence in letters; and while the literature upon the history, the origin, and the nature of the American Indian is not all of a superior quality, nor yet co-extensive with the possibilities of the subject, we can indeed boast of productions from the pens of Prescott, Wilson, Bancroft, Schoolcraft, Drake, Helen Jackson, Cooper, and others, which for literary excellence are rarely surpassed by the writings of any other nation.

American literature divides itself into four distinct periods: Colonial literature, literature of the Revolution, literature of the National and Constitutional period, and the literature of the Republic. The bulk of that to which prominence is given in this paper was produced in the closing years of the National and Constitutional period (1787–1861). The spirit of the Republic had come to its dawn, and was actually anticipated by Prescott and Cooper, and a few others, in works worthy of the highest rank. The order pursued in this discussion, however, will not be chronological, since we are to deal, not with American literature as a whole, but only with that portion which concerns the Indian, his character, and his origin. The histories of John Smith, and others of like nature, would present themselves first chronologically; but we shall follow that order which makes most convenient the investigation of the best authorities on the origin and antiquities of the aborigines, and which will enable us to present our criticisms in the most interesting form possible. In view of the fact that the object of the essay is to stimulate careful and persistent investigation, we trust that the length of our discussion will not prove objectionable.

Close upon the arrival of Columbus, as the enterprise of discovery and exploration gathered interest and advanced into the interior, the European was confronted with almost countless numbers of the "red men of the forest." Whether climbing the mountains, sailing the rivers, or penetrating the woods, the Indian was everywhere to dispute his passage. When the novelty of adventure had waned, the lust for gold supervened, and the colonies had secured a footing, the mind of civilized Europe was turned upon the Indian, his origin, and his history. Where did the red man come from? How did he reach the American continent? Was there a separate creation, or did he migrate from the East? These were questions which none could solve, which none have solved, and which will probably remain unsolved forever, though they have given rise to various and interesting speculations.

By many historians and ethnologists the Indians are thought to be an aboriginal and single stock. By others, Plato's story of "Atlantis" has been revived, and to them it is reasonable to suppose that some of the inhabitants of the ill-fated island escaped the flood and found their way to the New Continent.

Another, and a more probable theory is, that wandering boatmen, steering from Tartary or Japan, and touching upon one islet after another, finally reached the American shores, bringing with them the customs and civilization of the East. Though similarity in religious rites and ceremonies, relics of civilization, and numerous traditions would seem to indicate relationship with Asiatic peoples, still there are features in Indian physiognomy and physiological structure as well as mental and moral characteristics, that essentially distinguish him from every other race.

The fact that in their physical character, in color, form, and features, the aborigines throughout the whole continent present remarkable uniformity, it seems to be sufficient evidence that they had never intermingled with other varieties of the human family. Some, indeed, think the Indian but a mixture of Polynesian, Mongolian, and Caucasian types; or possibly the grafting of other races upon an original American race. Bancroft, in his "History of the United States" (Vol. 2), expresses his opinion on the origin of the Indian. He discovers a striking resemblance between the Mongolian of Asia and the native of North America, yet he says: "Nothing is so indelible as speech; sounds that in ages of unknown antiquity were spoken among the natives of Hindustan, still live with unchanged meaning in the language which we daily utter. The winged word cleaves its way through time, as well as through space. If the Chinese came to civilize, and came so recently, the shreds of their civilization would be still clinging to their works and their words." So we conclude that if the aborigines did really emigrate from the East, and if there ever existed any vital connection between them and the people of Asia, it was certainly in the far distant past, into which neither the memory, tradition nor history of man can penetrate.

There is in the character of the Indian that fascination which clusters about all objects of a mysterious antiquity. His origin is enveloped in a mist which the investigations of more than four hundred years have not sufficed to dispel. The mystery that hangs over him and the peculiarity of his nature have invested the study of Indian character with an unusual interest.

As we have already said, there is a certain individuality characteristic of the "red man," certain mental and physical traits distinguishing him from other men. He is stoical in the extreme, haughty in demeanor, taciturn; he is wary, bitter and revengeful in the destruction of his enemies, showing no regard either for sex or age in his cruelty to prisoners. Himself a prisoner, he will submit to the most excruciating torture without a murmur, displaying a fortitude akin to the sustaining power of the Christian's faith. In war he is brave, artful, and cunning; but is admittedly grateful for kindness and hospitable to strangers. The Indian is keen-eyed and a close observer of natural phenomena. Extremely superstitious, he regards the sun as the representative of the "Great Spirit," and, in a manner exasperating to the instincts and patience of the Christian man, sacrifices human beings to his numerous deities. His temperament is poetic and imaginative, while his simple eloquence often possesses much dignity and beauty of expression.

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Such is the estimate of the Indian and his character as found in authorities on standard literature.

Marcius Wilson has written, as an introduction to his History of the United States, a concise, yet comprehensive account of the aborigines and their antiquities, and of the Indian, his character and origin, as known to the civilized world. The introduction comprises, in a condensed and easy form, an enumeration and description of all the tribes of North America, noting their localities and their special distinguishing characteristics. Mr. Wilson is of the opinion that in mind, though possessed of the same natural endowments, the Indian is inferior to the European, having cultivated the perceptive faculty to the neglect of the reasoning powers and moral qualities. Throughout all the tribes a striking similarity of language shows that at some remote period they had a common origin, but so different from any ancient or modern language that if they were derived from the Old World it must have been in an exceedingly early age of the world's history.

The same authority continues to observe that the language of the Indian, though profuse in words and figures to designate objects of experience, abounding in metaphors and allegories, was yet "incapable of expressing abstract and moral truths, for, to these subjects, the Indian had never directed his attention, and he needed no terms to express that of which he had no conception," illustrating a principle that holds in all literature, an instance of which is the word of Greek origin "philanthropy," with which the language was not familiar until after the dawn of the Christian era.

The Indian had no written language. His only method of communicating ideas, and of preserving the memory of events, was by signs, knotted cords, belts of wampum, or, by "a system of pictorial writing, consisting of rude imitations of visible objects."

The government of the Indian, we learn further from this historian, in many instances approached an absolute monarchy. The "Five Nations" had a republican form of government, and in most of the tribes, the Indians, as individuals, maintained a considerable degree of independence, hardly submitting to any form of restraint. "Public opinion and usage were the only laws of the Indian."

"A superstitious reverence for the dead has been found a distinguishing trait of Indian character. Under its influence the dead were wrapped and buried in the choicest furs, with their ornaments, their weapons of war, and provisions to last them on their journey to the land of spirits. Extensive mounds of earth, the only monuments of the Indian, were often erected over the graves of illustrious chieftains; and some of the tribes, at stated intervals, collected the bones of the dead, and interred them in a common cemetery. . . . One usage, the burial of the dead in a sitting posture, was found almost universal among the tribes from Greenland to Cape Horn, showing that some common superstition pervaded the whole continent."

The Indian had many remarkable traditions, those concerning the Deluge being among the more noteworthy. They form a link in a great "chain of testimony which goes to substantiate the authenticity of Divine revelation. We behold the unlettered tribes of a vast continent, who have lost all knowledge of their origin, or their migration hither, preserving with remarkable distinctness the apparent tradition of certain events which the inspired penman tells us happened in the early ages of the world's history." These are connected with others in which we may find faint memorials of the destruction visited upon the "cities in the plain," by "fire which came down from heaven." If the scriptural account of Noah and the Deluge were but a "delusive fable," how and why is it that it has been perpetuated in the languages of various nations, by one tradition alone, through successive ages?

We learn that the Indian of to-day can furnish but few and unimportant relics to engage the attention of the scientist and the archæologist. The tomahawk, flint arrow-heads, an inferior quality of earthenware, pipes, and a few other specimens of aboriginal art and ingenuity, are all that we have upon which to base our estimate of their rude civilization. But there are in parts of the United States many antiquities of a wonderful character, which we cannot ascribe either to the Europeans or to the present Indian tribes, and which afford indisputable proofs of origin in a nation of remarkable cultivation. Medals, ornaments of silver and copper, silver cups finely

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gilded on the interior, mirrors of isinglass, and articles of pottery skilfully wrought and polished, may be cited as examples. In Wilson's History, also in Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico," are extended descriptions of the wonderful pyramids and temples and structures of various kinds that adorn the hilltops and plains of Mexico, rivalling in grandeur many of Egypt's remarkable antiquities. These memorials of a departed civilization, walls of stone, and mounds of immense proportions, dotting the banks of the Ohio and the Mississippi, and adorning the shores of the great lakes, crowning the table-lands and valleys of tropical Mexico, carry us back to a dignified and majestic past, an antiquity well-nigh as sublime and venerable as that of the proudest edifice that overshadows the waters of the Nile.

Such is the character of the numerous remains of ancient civilization scattered over the whole of the Western Continent. We quote here Wilson's closing remarks:

"That they were the work of multitudes of the human family who were associated in large communities, who cultivated the soil, and who had arrived at a degree of civilization considerably beyond that of the present Indian tribes, cannot be doubted. But the names and the history of these people we shall probably never with certainty learn. Curtained by the hand of time, which has left no written records, if any ever existed, their all but a few earth-embosomed relics have passed into oblivion. At the period of the first discovery of the continent, not only had this unknown but numerous people passed away from their ancient dwelling-places, but ages must have elapsed since their 'altars and their fires' were deserted, for over all the monuments which alone perpetuate the knowledge of their existence, the forest had already extended its shades, and nature had triumphantly resumed her empire, cheating the wondering European with the belief that her solitudes had never before been broken but by the wild beasts that roamed there, or by the stealthy footsteps of the rude Indian."

The soul of man first found expression in song. Poetry is preëminently the language of nature. The mocking-bird, who thrills with his simple melody, seems to warble in poetic strains. The streams that run with their glassy flood to augment the rivers, murmur poetically as they dash and wind along, gladdening us with their music and refreshing waters. When we rise early in the morning and look upon the sunshine as it gleams and glitters on the dew-drops, sparkling upon the valleys that stretch in silent loveliness to the distant hillside, we would express our rapture, as did Tennyson, and Goldsmith, and Lanier, in the loftiest language that ever moved the soul of man,—the language of poetry. It was such inspiration as this in the soul of Henry W. Longfellow that gave to the world that touching story of an Indian hero—the poem "Hiawatha." Longfellow was familiar with Indian character and had witnessed the beauty and grandeur of the falls of "Laughing Water," the impressions of which are enshrined in the poem.

The poem is founded upon a tradition which prevailed among the North American Indians, of a personage of miraculous birth and character, whom the Great Spirit had sent to open up their rivers and forests, to give surcease to war, and to teach them the arts of peace. The scene is laid among the tribe of Indians called Objibways, on the shores of Lake Superior. The hero was known by different names, the most popular and attractive of which is "Hiawatha," the title of the poem. Into the tradition the poet has woven the spirit of other curious legends and ideas characteristic of the Indian nature, and has invested the original story with new life and beauty. The style is simple, easy, and highly illustrative of the peculiar simplicity and sentimentality of Indian character. That strange fascination that clings about the Indian, his history, and his character, is strikingly illustrated in the introduction to the poem:

"Should you ask me whence these stories?
Whence these legends and traditions,
With the odors of the forest,
With the dew and damp of meadows,
With the curling smoke of wigwams,
With the rushing of great rivers,
With their frequent repetitions
And their wild reverberations,
As of thunder in the mountains?
I should answer, I should tell you,
'From the forest and the prairies,
From the Great Lakes of the Northland.'"

It has been noticed already that in many instances we find in the Indian striking resemblances to the civilization of the East. In fact, the proposition is true that all men, however remote in habitation, color, or civilization, bear certain indisputable marks of resemblance. The Christian has his Christ, the Mohammedan his Mahomet, and the Indian, his "Hiawatha." In the first song the Great Master calls together

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the tribes about the "red pipe-stone quarry," where he stands erect, and from his footprints flows a river that leaps 'into the light of the morning," and plunging o'er the precipice, gleams "like Ishkoodaha, the comet." Says this "Master of Life:"—

"I will send a prophet to you,
A Deliverer of the nations,
Who shall guide you and shall teach you,
Who shall toil and suffer with you,
If you listen to his counsels,
You will multiply and prosper;
If his warnings pass unheeded,
You will fade away and perish!"

How like the Christian idea of Christ, the divine Teacher, or the Spirit who guides us "into all Truth!" We can but yield to a strange sympathy that arises in our bosoms when we contemplate the simple, cloudy, almost light-penetrating, yet unreal, unfounded sentimentality or superstition of the Indian mind. It was such that inspired the soul of our own loved and honored Bishop George F. Pierce, when he so ardently advocated the admission of Indian women into our Christian colleges.

The scenery about Fort Snelling is famous for its beauty. Between the fort and the "Falls of St. Anthony" are Little River Falls, about forty feet in height, on a tributary of the Mississippi. The Indian name for these Falls is "Minnehaha," or "Laughing Waters." They have been made famous by the reference to them in the poem of "Hiawatha." The hero, in his wanderings, had seen a beautiful young maiden, whom he loved, wooed and won. Her home was near the Falls, and her name was "Minnehaha;" hence the Falls are named "Laughing Waters."

In this song the poet uses the characteristics of the Indian nature in illustrating and enforcing the beauties of the scenery which he describes.

There is an incompleteness in the poem which detracts from its force and beauty, yet not sufficiently to disturb its general sweetness or destroy the effect. It is the "Epic poem of Indian literature," and is worthy of its illustrious author.

In the field of fiction our literature on the Indian is not by any means deficient, although its limited extent is surprising. In this department the names of Lew Wallace and Helen Hunt Jackson are conspicuous. The fact that the Indian's nature possesses a great deal that is tender and gentle and affectionate, is illustrated in Helen Jackson's interesting story "Ramona." Some one has ventured to say that in many of her scenes and passages of descriptive power she has rivalled the great master of American romance. Whether this be true or not, the book possesses qualities that entitle it to high rank in the literature of its order. In it the *ne plus ultra* of human depravity and the *summum bonum* of life are strongly illustrated. Many of the descriptions are excellent, while the delineation of certain phases of Indian character is worthy of special note. Mrs. Jackson has written other works that possess merit, but none have excelled "Ramona" in delicacy of conception or simplicity of expression.

The genius of Lew Wallace, weaving into existence that strange story of the Saviour of the world, blending the customs of a heathen civilization with the simple story of the Nazarene, and enacting again the scenes upon Judæan hills, has not forgotten the beautiful valley of Mexico, and the once flourishing civilization that adorned it with pyramids and palaces, and other works of art. Under the disguise of a translator he has written "The Fair God," a story of the Conquest of Mexico. The effort to give the narrative the appearance of a personal experience, upon the assumption that such possesses more attraction for the reader than the customary forms of fictitious composition, has given to the production a style and character of its own. How well the author succeeds in reproducing the peculiar characteristics of a Tezcucan writer, we cannot say; but he has happily, perhaps unconsciously, retained his own identity in the composition of the book, in spite of his effort to conceal it, and the lucidity of style and beauty of expression so characteristic of the author shine out upon every page.

While different essentially in locality and in character, his representation of the memorable siege of Mexico, and the horrors of "La Noche Triste," suggests the thrilling Chariot Race so vividly presented in "Ben Hur." They cannot, of course, be compared, except for the purpose of illustrating the author's power in depicting scenes of a tragic and exciting character. "The Fair God" is none

other than Quetzatcoatl, and most of the other characters are historical personages, while Hernando Cortés figures prominently, all reminding us of Prescott's remarkable account of the Conquest. The book closes with a touching scene, in which we are taught the truth that the Indian is capable of pure emotions and true affection. The 'tzin, returning from the pursuit of Cortés, hastens to the capital with a throbbing heart, conscious that he has gained power and prestige in the contest that was closing, and dreaming of coming greatness. But suddenly he remembers his friend, and he asks: "Where is Lord Hualpa?"

"At the second canal," answered a cacique (a native prince or chief).

"And he is ——."

"Dead!"

The hero's head droops, and, the loving friend again, he forgets his dreams of greatness. As he looks upon the face of Nenetzin, as childlike and beautiful as ever, he is reminded of Hualpa's last words: "If I come not with the rising sun to-morrow, Nenetzin can tell you my story." Though cold in death, she does tell it now. "The iron cross was yet in her hand, and the hand yet rested upon the head of a warrior lying near. The 'tzin stooped, and turned the dead man over, and lo! the lord Hualpa. From one to the other the princely mourner looked; a mist, not of the lake or the cloud, rose and hid them from his view; he turned away,— *she had told him all the story.*" The book ends a little abruptly, and leaves to the reader's imagination the subsequent careers of the characters who survive the great catastrophe, but the impression left upon the mind is that it is a work of extraordinary merit.

And so the fascination of the Indian nature has drawn into exercise the literary talents of many writers, but the greatest conquest in this rich and attractive field was reserved for the genius of Fenimore Cooper.

Cooper's contributions to the great library of American literature are illustrative of the power of true genius, though it be but the jewel unpolished. He wrote at a time most favorable to the production of the kind of literature which he has unquestionably adorned. The clouds of war which had overcast our skies had broken, and, falling back, had rested, whence they came, upon England's distant shores. The excitement and thrilling adventure always attendant upon war periods were still fresh in his mind. The "red man" still retained something of his original glory, though his star seemed declining towards the horizon. Cooper had the inspiration of a wild and romantic environment in early life. He had mingled with the Indian and had observed his character in his boybood, as he darted in his birch canoe upon the glassy surface of Lake Otsego, or crept stealthily about the picturesque little village of Cooperstown, where he lived in his youth, and where he died.

The "quiet country gentleman," as Cooper has been called, gave no early evidence of the eminent career in authorship which so richly crowned his life. And yet, Fenimore Cooper became, in truth, one of the most popular authors who has ever written. His early surroundings stimulated his naturally active imagination, and gave him inspiration in the conquest of a field he has ever held peculiarly his own. He has been greatly admired by Balzac, and Victor Hugo has gone so far as to declare him greater than the "great master of modern romance." His works have been translated into nearly all civilized tongues, and have been received abroad almost as enthusiastically as at home. He wrote for the world at large, and no American author has earned a wider fame. While we cannot claim for Cooper, even in his masterpiece, that richness and elegance of style so characteristic of Irving, nor the extensive knowledge of human nature that distinguished Dickens, yet no writer ever possessed a more vigorous imagination or displayed more wonderful descriptive power, nor has either of the above-named authors, or any other, labored more skilfully or successfully, in his own peculiar sphere, than Fenimore Cooper in his delineation of the customs and character of the North American Indian.

Cooper's chief productions are those known as the "Leatherstocking Tales," which have secured for him world-wide renown. The works embraced in this series are: "The Pioneers," "The Last of the Mohicans," "The Prairie," "The Pathfinder," and "The Deerslayer." This is the order in

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which they were originally published, but it is essentially different from that in which they would come were the regular course of their incidents regarded. The principal character in the whole series is "Leatherstocking," known also as "Hawkeye," "The Trapper," "Pathfinder," "Deerslayer," and "Natty Bumpo." Taking his life as a guide, "The Deerslayer" would be the opening book, for in this work he is just emerging into manhood. Then would come in order "The Last of the Mohicans," "The Pathfinder," "The Pioneers," and "The Prairie."

In addition to the Leatherstocking series, Cooper has written a great many works of varied character, but the "Leatherstocking Tales" alone, had he written no others, would have made him famous. "The Pioneers," the first of the series written, was given a warm reception in America and in Europe, because of its fine descriptions. It may be called an historical novel, setting forth, with remarkable adherence to truth, various phases of American life and scenery. This feature is relieved by the insertion of romantic incidents, illustrative of the glories of the forest and the character of its rude inhabitants.

In "The Prairie" the career of Leatherstocking, or "The Trapper," as he is known in that work, terminates, and he is laid in the grave, seemingly with the impression that he would be soon forgotten. But his original character has become a living personality in the mind and soul of the author, and our hero is resuscitated in "The Pathfinder."

In "The Deerslayer" he is represented as just budding into manhood, with the dew and freshness of youth upon him; and consequently he is loved by a young woman full of weakness and vanity. It is a superior stroke of the author's skill when he invests Deerslayer with those noble qualities of probity, sincerity, modesty, and truthfulness which prevent his reciprocating the love and passion of one in whom he sees little to admire. The scene of the story is said to be descriptive of Otsego Lake, prior to the year 1760, and was designed to illustrate the wilds of the forest and the peculiarities of Indian character.

Lest we transcend the limits of this paper, we must be content with only a passing notice of the greater number of the works of any one author. Consequently we can present a discussion of not more than one of the Leatherstocking Series.

"The Last of the Mohicans" is the author's masterpiece. It is a work of very considerable merit, and deserves to rank among the choicest productions of literature. He who reads it feels as though he had been an actual observer of the scenes presented in the story. Had Cooper never written "The Last of the Mohicans," he would never have been accorded the distinction of being the greatest of American novelists; for while "The Deerslayer," "The Pioneers," and "The Prairie," possess qualities that secure for them recognition in first-class literature, the author's skill and ingenuity seem to have culminated in the creation of the work under consideration. It is a real, living novel, abounding in thrilling episodes, rich humor, and a peculiar pathos. In this work Cooper seems to have exhausted his wonderful power in the description of natural scenery, and in the exposition of character, particularly that of the Indian. The descriptive quality is frequently supplemented by an ingenuous flavoring of the philosophical, while the otherwise burdensome narrative is relieved by an unexpected flash of humor.

The plot is well drawn and admirably executed, though the transitions from scene to scene are so easy and unconscious as almost to preclude the supposition of a pre-existing plot. It is said to be a narrative of 1757 (a generation before the author's birth) during the French and Indian War. The Iroquois, or Hurons, who originally were of the same stock, were allied to the French; the Delawares or Mohicans to the English. At the time of this story the star of the French was in the ascendant, not yet having begun to decline toward its destined and final setting. The red man was abroad in the land, and his enemy might well shudder for his scalp. The scene is laid between the headwaters of the Hudson and the adjacent lakes, a section of country famous for its natural beauty. Fort William Henry, occupied by the English, was situated upon the shores of the "Horrican," a splendid sheet of water near the southern end of Lake Champlain, known now as Lake George. This lake stretched

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out in its simple grandeur from the frontiers of Canada to the province of New York, and its shores were alive with the active and vigilant French and Indians, under the distinguished Montcalm.

Speaking of the great Massacre at Fort William Henry, Cooper has this to say of the renowned French Commander: "This massacre, while not encouraged, yet permitted by him, so far deepened the stain which a previous and very similar event had left upon the reputation of the French commander, that it was not entirely erased by his early and glorious death. It is now becoming obscured by time, and thousands who know that Montcalm died like a hero on the Plains of Abraham, have yet to learn how much he was deficient in that moral courage without which no man can be truly great!"

The story presented in this work is briefly as follows: Fort William Henry is in danger, and reinforcements are to be sent from Fort Edward. The two daughters of Colonel Munro, who is in command at William Henry, are to make the journey with the troops. It is decided, however, that they shall take a nearer route through the forest, in charge of a young officer of the army, with an Indian as their guide. The false Indian betrays them, and is about to lead them into captivity, when they are rescued by a white scout and two friendly Indians. The treacherous guide escapes and becomes afterwards their most dangerous enemy. Passing through a succession of thrilling adventures, they finally reach the Fort in safety. The closing scenes of the book contain an account of the second capture of the two girls, their subsequent rescue, the death of the elder sister and of the young Mohican chief.

The description of the scenery and the thrilling incident narrated are absolutely unsurpassed in literature. This power possessed by few was never more grandly displayed than in Cooper's presentation of the flight in the canoe upon Lake George. Here the Indian is in his glory, as the little barque goes forward like "a creature possessing life and volition," leaping and springing upon the water, while that of the enemy follows close in pursuit. The scene is rapid, exciting, grand. In perusing it we are almost compelled to imagine ourselves standing in breathless silence upon the shores of the beautiful lake, gazing in wonder upon the canoes that seem to leap through the air and touch the water here and there to gain impetus for the next plunge. Finally, they pass around the bluff, the pursuers give up the chase, and our suspense is over.

As we have already said, the hero of the Leatherstocking series, and therefore, in a sense, of each individual number, is a white scout of the English army. In "The Last of the Mohicans" he is known as "Hawkeye," a name given him by the Indians. Scarcely is Cooper surpassed, even by Dickens, in the portrayal of many of his characters. So forcibly are we impressed with this almost ideal personage, the scout, that we recognize him instantly, though we stumble upon him in another book and under another name. He is a real, living character, and is thrust into prominence by his own striking personality. In him many of the virtues of the civilized man are combined with the best qualities of the savage. Long association with the brown-hued man of the forest has imparted to him something of his instinct and cunning; and yet the pride and joy of his life seem to rest in the fact that he is "a man without a cross." His reverence, rough honesty, and picturesque dialect, comport well with his simple piety and his natural sense of right and wrong. His bed is a pile of sassafras, his canopy the sky, his food the panting deer that answers to "Kildeer's" call, and his companions two trusty natives, an old chief and his son, whose loyalty he has proved in a hundred encounters. He learns of God in the great volume of Nature that surrounds him with its beauty and magnificence in the morning and at noon, and with its golden grandeur at the setting of the sun.

"Book!" says he, what have such as I, who am a warrior of the wilderness, though a man without a cross, to do with books? I never read in but one. . . . 'Tis open before your eyes, and he who owns it is not a niggard of its use. I have heard it said that there are men who read in books to convince themselves that there is a God. I know not but that man may so deform his work in the settlement, as to leave that which is so clear in the wilderness a matter of doubt among traders and priests. If any such there be, and he will follow me

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from sun to sun through the windings of the forest, he shall see enough to teach him that he is a fool!" Nature was the great Book to him; and the negation of Atheism was as incompatible with his simple nature and ideas, as that of God appears to be with the arrogant conceit of the Atheist.

Not less pleasing is the rude philosophy of the generous scout. While many of our theologians would shake their heads wisely, and declare him "not orthodox," yet the following passage compels our thought and displays an artful touch on the part of the author:

> "I believe," said the scout, in conversation with the young major, "that Paradise is ordained for happiness; and that men will be indulged in it according to their dispositions and gifts. I therefore judge that a redskin is not far from the truth when he believes that he is to find those glorious hunting-grounds of which his traditions tell. . . . I have heard preachers say in the settlement, that heaven was a place of rest. Now, men's minds differ as to their ideas of enjoyment. For myself, and I say it with reverence for the orderings of Providence, it would be no great indulgence to be kept shut up in those mansions of which they preach, having a natural longing for motion and the chase."

And how far wrong is the philosopher of the forest? May we not read a deeper meaning than is apparent here upon the surface? What enjoyment does a man of refined and intellectual tastes find in the company of low-bred ruffians? How infinitely gratifying to a man of sensuous nature to be relieved of the presence of a chaste, refined, and devout character! And shall we not be dealt with according to our deeds? And will our widely varying natures and dispositions be then blended into one harmonious spirit in order that all may be rewarded alike? These questions are no avowal of any belief on the part of the writer; but the thought is engaging, and it is pleasing to contemplate the author's skill in giving to the simple men of the forest ideas and convictions so natural to one of his surroundings.

We love to think of this character. We can almost see his open, honest face, and catch the light of his "small, quick, keen, and restless eye," shaded by his huge and heavy eye-brows; and his gentle countenance at once wins our confidence and admiration. He was witty, wise in his sphere, really an ideal character; for if he possessed a moral fault, even a second perusal of the book has not discovered it to the writer of this sketch. Some have objected that the author has allowed inconsistencies to mar his delineation of this particular character, but in this work, at least, the execution is well sustained throughout. He is the same when his fatal rifle drops the treacherous Magua from the crag, as on the day when the travellers first met him by the river side in the forest. He is truly an individual character, and stands out alone in literature, commanding the admiration of every lover of romantic adventure.

OLIN S. DEAN.

[TO BE CONCLUDED IN A FUTURE ISSUE.]

RIGHT OF THE STATE TO BENEFIT A PORTION OF THE COMMUNITY AT THE EXPENSE OF THE WHOLE

IN view of the present-day proposals of advanced reformers, the question often arises whether the State* has a just (or) moral right to benefit one or more sections of the community at the cost of the whole. It is the object of this paper to aid the reader in forming a judgment on this important and fundamental matter.

The discussion assumes a hope that, in the future, the State may be actuated by moral principle in its action on this question, for, in the past, that action has been determined rather in accordance with the self-interest of the classes in whom political power has been centred at each different era; but it is possible, owing to the more evenly-balanced condition of that power at the present day, that ethical considerations may have more weight in the future.

In order to determine the rights of the State we must first consider what the origin and functions of the State are, and whether its existence can be dispensed with.

* By the "State" we mean, throughout this discussion, (1) The constituted Authorities of any State or Nation acting in accordance with their constitutional and legal powers. (2) A majority of the people so acting.

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A State may originate by a compact between King and People,—the king undertaking to protect the people, and the people undertaking to maintain the king in royal state and to acquiesce in the exercise by him of royal prerogatives; or it may originate by agreement among the people, embodied in a constitution. The former method is appropriate to cases where the State has arisen from the union of a conquering and a subjected people,—the latter to cases where it has been formed among the people themselves in times of peace. But, whatever its origin, its functions are the same. It is designed to settle the rights of the inhabitants in a peaceable manner, to compel acquiescence in the settlement decreed, and to frame regulations, at least for the orderly conduct of public business, the ensuring of adequate evidence of facts, and the uniform solution of such questions of right as admit of several solutions all consistent with equity. For these purposes the threefold machinery of the State is indispensable. There must be a Judiciary, an Executive and a Legislature, although in practice the judiciary participates very largely in legislative functions. We conclude, therefore, that civilized life would be impossible without the machinery of the State.

This conclusion may seem obvious to an ordinary mind, but it is denied by a coterie of would-be philosophers who have made themselves prominent in literature under the name of "Philosophic Anarchists."* It is difficult to view this philosophy seriously, yet it is seriously maintained to be a system quite practicable among mankind. Its advocates propose that the functions of the State should be discharged by voluntary associations, each confining its action to its own members. Surely, however, such would be nothing else than a State. No doubt it would be a State acting impulsively, thoughtlessly, capriciously, without deliberation, without uniformity.

But this would scarcely be an advantage. It would, too, be a State refusing protection to any but its own members, and so, indirectly, compelling all to join it. And, if there were several such associations, questions would arise between them which could only be settled by some higher power or by war. The only result must be a relapse into barbarism. Anarchists, however, are understood to hold that wrong-doing is caused, solely or mainly, by a desire to rebel against the law which forbids it. But the true trend of human conduct is best studied in the conduct of nations, which, being free from the trammels of law, do not generally act upon principles of justice or truth in their conduct with one another. Yet I have sometimes thought, judging from the vigor with which anarchist writers inveigh against "statute-law," that their objection may be rather against regulations than against the judicial and coercive administration of justice.

True it is that regulations as frequently originate in judicial decision as in legislation, and that much of legislation is merely the relaxing of regulation; but anarchist writers may not be aware of this, and their position, as thus understood, is not irrational. But, even if regulations were dispensed with, we should still need a Judiciary and an Executive, and therefore a State. And the absence of uniformity in regulation would lead to discordant decisions, and the consequent imputation of unfairness, and would render many of the transactions of life impossible. We conclude, therefore, that the anarchist philosophy has not disproved the necessity of the State.

Taking as proved, therefore, that the State must exist, and must administer justice and frame regulations, the question remains: What is the justice it must administer, and what are the regulations it must frame?

Upon this subject opinions differ, because interests differ. The members of every community may be divided into two classes who have been respectively termed the Haves and the Have-nots, the latter term originally coined in derision, but really involving a deep pathos. Of these the former are generally Individualists and the latter Socialists. Both of these are agreed that it is the duty of the State to keep the peace, and to make such regulations

* The doctrines of Anarchism are explained in "The Anarchist Peril," p. 192, by quotations from Anarchist writers. These amount in effect to this: All men are to do what is just and kind of their own free will, and each is freely to exert himself in useful work for the common good. All are to help themselves to one another's products freely. All government and authority are to cease.

as are indispensable for the purposes above referred to. But they differ as to whether the State should preserve intact the rights of property which it finds existing, or whether it should aim at a possible redistribution of them. We shall be better able to form a judgment on this question if we suppose the contending parties to plead until they come to an issue; and, perhaps, we may find a way to reconcile their differences by carrying out the redistribution of wealth in a manner consistent with individual rights, and calculated to subserve the full and free development of all that is worthy in Individuality. We may take it as common ground that such regulations as have no reason to support them should be pruned away; and the law is full of such, some having arisen from want of foresight or misapplication of precedents; and some, which were once reasonable, having outgrown their usefulness.

The Individualist position is this: A has certain rights. The State has no moral right to exercise its legal power by taking them away, even for the purpose of giving them to B, however necessitous B may be.

The Socialist admits this as a general proposition, but he insists on two important qualifications. First, he confines it to the moral as distinguished from the merely legal rights of A; and, secondly, he holds that even moral rights may be overriden by other moral rights of a more fundamental character.

These positions the Individualist does not deny, but he maintains that the rights which he seeks to guard are moral and not merely legal, and that no higher right collides with their exercise.

This the Socialist denies. And so they join issue.

The first question between them, therefore, is: How far are the rights of property natural rights, and how far are they creatures of law?

Let us take land-titles first. Land is not by nature susceptible of absolute ownership. It is the source of human subsistence; and, as such, the whole community must have a natural claim upon it, which, in case of need, would have to be legally recognized. But, besides this, the title to land is always and necessarily the creature of law. The title, whether it is held by the State or by an Individual, must have originated at best in occupancy,—it may have originated in force or fraud,—but seizure of unoccupied land is the highest beginning of title we can imagine, for purchase is not a beginning of title but a transfer of it.

Now it rests in the discretion of the law-giver whether occupancy shall be allowed to form a ground of title. No moral claim—no claim higher than a legal claim, can be founded on it; and therefore, *a fortiori*, no claim higher than a legal claim can be founded on any other mode of originating land-titles. It is true, however, that, when land is used as well as occupied, the use founds a moral title to the fruits obtained from it by labor, and even to the buildings, etc., erected on it; and, by consequence, to the occupation of the land until these be compensated for. And occupancy, accompanied by the formation of engagements or habits in reliance on its continuance, may found a moral claim to continue the occupation so long as the public well-being does not require its abandonment, and to compensation in case the occupation is required to cease.

But these truths do not conflict with the other truth that the claim to the land itself and to the value of the land itself is the creature of State polity. Do not imagine, however, that I am advocating confiscation. After one man has acquired a legal title to land, another man cannot get it without paying for the land itself, as well as for the improvements; and equity requires that if the State should afterwards want the land, it should reimburse the second man for this outlay, which, under compulsion of the State, he had to pay (whatever rights the State may have to recover the value of the land itself from the first man), and the inability of single-taxers to see this has much surprised me. But the proposition still holds good, that the mere act of seizing upon that which has no owner cannot produce a moral right, and least of all when the subject seized upon is one which is necessary to human existence. Nor can the lapse of time alter this. The public, therefore, appears to have an indefeasible moral right to purchase the land without paying for the bare land itself any higher price than the land-holder paid for it. The question whether this moral claim shall be converted into a legal one depends on considerations of the public

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good and rests in the discretion of the legislature. This moral right goes further than the present law of eminent domain. If space allowed, it could be shown that some other things fall within the same principle as land.

Contra-distinguished from land stand the fruits of labor, which, by natural right, belong to the worker because derived from his own exertions. But the raw materials on which he works are very frequently products of nature, and therefore fall under the same principle as land. For them, therefore, a royalty may be levied. And even the fruits of labor stand subject to superior natural rights. On this ground we justify the conduct of municipal authorities in a besieged city, when, if food falls short, they take a portion from those whose store is large, and distribute it among the rest, paying a compensation if compensation be possible.

The right to contract stands on a peculiar footing. Its subject-matter may be either property or person. Itself is neither, though it has been judicially held to be the former. The making of a contract cannot be prevented, nor can its fulfilment; but, if one of the parties be unwilling, and the other seek the aid of the State to compel him to fulfil the contract or pay compensation for not doing so, the State can refuse its aid. The right to do this, in cases where the object or necessary consequence of its fulfilment would be immoral or harmful to the public interests, and also where it has been induced by the fraud or unfairness of the party claiming its fulfilment, or by a mistake of the other party as to a fact, or by surprise, is fully admitted by the present law. But there is also another principle of law which is not so generally known, and which has hitherto been applied only to mortgages, and to sales of reversionary interests, post-obit bonds, and the like, but which has been declared by the highest judicial authorities to be of general application; namely, that a man is not bound to fulfil a contract into which he has been driven by stress of necessitous circumstances, although he must, in this as in other cases of contracts invalid on other than grounds of immorality, restore any benefit which he may have derived under the contract. The English Lord Chancellor Hatherly, delivering judgment in the House of Lords, in 2 Appeal Cases, p. 823, said that the doctrine extended to all cases in which the parties to a contract have not met on equal terms.

The result is that three fundamental principles appear to be proved, and are, in the main, conceded by the present law. The first principle allows of the taking of land by the State, upon payment of compensation for the labor and money expended on it by the land-holder. The second allows of the taking of personal goods by the State in cases of necessity, upon payment of full compensation. The third allows of laws regulating the conditions under which labor may be carried on, so as not to admit of an undue burthen being placed on the workers, and relieving them from the contract to work when these conditions are not fulfilled; for, as the Massachusetts Commissioner of Labor says in "The Chautauquan" (xxiii, p. 287), "The worker, although possessing freedom of contract as a matter of legal theory, is rarely able to exercise it in making terms with his employer." It remains to consider how far it is possible and how far expedient to apply these principles in legislation.

The Socialist solution is this: there are three paramount rights, — the right to life, the right to health, and the right to marriage, and these are equivalent to the following, — the right to be employed, the right to have that employment guarded by moderate and healthy conditions, and the right to receive remuneration sufficient for the maintenance of a family in health, which may be taken as the minimum definition of what is so vaguely termed a "living wage." Socialists, it is true, go further than this, and claim for the detail workers as large a proportion of the profits of enterprises as can, by any practicable changes in the law, be secured to them. They rest this claim partly on the ground that "Equality is equity," and partly on the ground that the worker is entitled to the whole product of his labor. But we have not space here to consider these larger claims, nor are they pertinent to the subject of this paper. Upon the validity of the other claims and the propriety of transmuting them from moral into legal rights the Individualist and the Socialist join issue. The Individualist admits that every man has a right to life

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and enjoyment if he can attain them without trenching on the right of property or on the right of contracting. The Socialist claims that these latter rights should be modified or sacrificed for the sake of the former.

Upon this question I feel that an expression of my own opinion would be of little value, but the reader may be aided in forming a judgment by a statement of the opinions advanced by writers who have treated of the abstract question. Theodore Woolsey, in his work on "Political Science" (vol. 1, p. 221), seems to approve of legislation invalidating the habit of "contracting out of" legislation by which the hours and conditions of labor are regulated; but he disapproves the claim to employment as a right, holding that a storekeeper might as reasonably expect a law to provide him with customers. This, however, involves a misconception of the Socialist position, which is, not that a man is entitled to be supplied with a specific kind of work selected by himself, but that he is entitled to be supplied with *some* kind of work selected by the State, — storekeepers as well as others having this privilege. Mr. Woolsey's work is open to this criticism — that he supports the State in doing whatever it already does, even adducing (especially but not exclusively in pp. 262, 264) the fact that it does certain things as a proof that it has a right to do them, but denies its right to do anything which it has not yet undertaken to do.

Humboldt (quoted by Woolsey, p. 245), holds that the highest aim of man is to develop his individuality (meaning, no doubt, his moral and intellectual powers), but he thinks the State would only do harm were it to aid the individual in this endeavor. This view is maintained by many other writers, but I think that in advocating it, they have the well-to-do classes chiefly in mind.

J. S. Mill, quoted by Woolsey (p. 249), sides generally with Humboldt, but he would allow the State to exercise a protective tutelage over men of undisciplined and semi-civilized races. This qualification, which Mill engrafts on Humboldt's doctrine, is a remarkable one, for its principle would extend to men of whatever race who are undisciplined, ignorant, weak or the victims of circumstances.

Donisthorpe, in his "Law in a Free State" (p. 41), consistently disapproves of all State aid, even in the way of free education. His principle, expressed in p. 72, is, that whatever the State has been accustomed to do with increasing stringency through a long period of centuries must be taken to have been shown by experience to be within its sphere, and that whatever it has been found to do in decreasing measure must be taken to have been shown by experience to be beyond its sphere. But he insists that the tendency toward socialistic legislation is too recent to be taken into account; and that throughout the last twenty centuries the State has been becoming more strict in preventing frauds and other interferences with legal rights as generally understood, but less strict in regulating the conduct of the individual in other respects. The generally received explanation, however, of the State's tendency to decrease (until recently) its interference with the individual, and to increase this interference more recently, is, that the interference which has been decreased had for its object the support of privileged classes, while that which has been increasing is that which had for its object the welfare of the masses, and the change of tendency itself is explained by the further fact that the centre of power was, in past generations, shifting from the nobility to the wealthy commercial class, and is now shifting to the masses. The purpose of the commercial class was to gain perfect liberty as to the mode of increasing and using the wealth which they already possessed,—that of the masses is to gain the wealth which they as yet have not. The former stood at first in the position of men armed but restrained from using their weapons,—the latter stand in the position of men not yet armed; the former desire only freedom,—the latter desire weapons as well. Donisthorpe's work is, however, suggestive, and, as an attempt to define philosophic anarchism, has much aided me in the composition of this paper.

It must be added that states and nations have already adopted, to a considerable extent, the principle of benefiting a portion of the community at the cost of the whole, and many examples could be given if space allowed.

H. W. B. MACKAY.

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A TRUE CAPTAIN OF INDUSTRY:*

THOMAS BRASSEY, THE GREAT RAILWAY CONTRACTOR

THE vast works of the railway and steamboat age called into existence, besides the race of great engineers, a race of great organizers and directors of industry, who may be generally termed Contractors. Among these no figure was more conspicuous than that of Mr. Thomas Brassey, a life of whom has been written by the late Sir Arthur Helps, Clerk of the English Privy Council, and author of the social essays, entitled "Friends in Council." The materials were collected in an unusual way — by examining the persons who had acted under Mr. Brassey, or knew him well, and taking down their evidence in shorthand. The examination was conducted by Mr. Brassey, Jr., (the present Lord Brassey, Governor of Victoria), who prudently declined to write the biography himself, feeling that a son could not speak impartially of his father. The result is that we have materials for a portrait, which not only is very interesting in itself, but, by presenting the image of beneficence in an employer, may help to mediate between capital and labor in a time of industrial war.

Sir Arthur Helps had been acquainted with Mr. Brassey, and had once received a visit from him on official business of difficulty and importance. He expected, he says, to see a hard, stern, soldierly sort of person, accustomed to sway armies of workingmen in an imperious fashion. Instead of this he saw an elderly gentleman of very dignified appearance and singularly graceful manners — "a gentleman of the old school." "He stated his case, no, I express myself wrongly; he did *not* state his case, he *understated* it; and there are few things more attractive in a man than that he should be inclined to understate rather than overstate his own case." Mr. Brassey was also very brief, and when he went away, Mr. Helps (as he then was) knowing well the matter in respect to which his visitor had a grievance, thought that, if it had been his own case, he should hardly have been able to restrain himself so well, and speak with so little regard to self-interest, as Mr. Brassey had done. Of all the persons whom Mr. Helps had known, he thought Mr. Brassey most resembled that perfect gentleman and excellent public man, Lord Herbert of Lea.†

Mr. Helps commences his work with a general portrait. According to this portrait, the most striking feature in Mr. Brassey's character was trustfulness, which he carried to what might appear an extreme. He chose his agents with care, but, having chosen them, placed implicit confidence in them, trusting them for all details, and judging by results. He was very liberal in the conduct of business. His temperament was singularly calm and equable, not to be discomposed by success or failure, easily throwing off the burden of care, and, when all had been done that could be done, awaiting the result with perfect equanimity. He was very delicate in blaming, his censure being always of the gentlest kind, evidently reluctant, and on that account going more to the heart. His generosity made him exceedingly popular with his subordinates and workmen, who looked forward to his coming among them as a festive event; and, when any disaster occurred in the works, the usual parts of employer and employed were reversed — the employer it was who framed the excuses and comforted the employed. He was singularly courteous, and listened to everybody with respect; so that it was a marked thing when he went so far as to say of a voluble and empty chatter, that "the peas were overgrowing the stick."

Mr. Brassey's presence of mind was great; he had, moreover, in an eminent degree, as his biographer remarks, what Napoleon called "two-o'clock-in-the-morning courage," being

* This attractive biographical sketch, founded on the late Sir Arthur Helps' "Memoir of Thomas Brassey," was contributed a number of years ago to "The Canadian Monthly," and is here reproduced by the kind permission of its distinguished author.—ED.

† Sidney Herbert, first Lord Herbert of Lea (1810–1861), younger son of the 11th Earl of Pembroke. Lord Herbert was a member of the administrations of Sir Robert Peel and Lord Aberdeen, and Colonial Secretary in Lord Palmerston's ministry.

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always ready, if called up in the middle of the night, to meet any urgent peril; and his faculties were stimulated, not overcome, by danger. He had a perfect hatred of contention, and would not only refuse to take any questionable advantage, but would rather even submit to be taken advantage of — a generosity which turned to his account. In the execution of any undertaking, his anxiety was that the work should be done quickly and done well. Minor questions, unprovided for by specific contract, he left to be settled afterwards.

In his life Thomas Brassey had only one regular lawsuit. It was in Spain, about the Mataro line, and into this he was drawn by his partner against his will. He declared that he would never have another, "for in nineteen cases out of twenty you either gain nothing at all, or what you do gain does not compensate you for the worry and anxiety the lawsuit occasions you." In case of disputes between his agents and the engineers, he quietly settled the question by reference to the "gangers."

In order to find the key to Mr. Brassey's character, his biographer took care to ascertain what was his "ruling passion." He had none of the ordinary ambitions for rank, title or social position. "His great ambition — his ruling passion — was to win a high reputation for skill, integrity, and success in the difficult vocation of a contractor for public works; to give large employment to his fellow-countrymen; by means of British labor and British skill to knit together foreign countries; and to promote civilization, according to his view of it, throughout the world." "Mr. Bassey," continues Mr. Helps, "was, in brief, a singularly trustful, generous, large-hearted, dexterous, ruling kind of personage; blessed with a felicitous temperament for bearing the responsibility of great affairs." In the military age he might have been a great soldier, a Turenne or a Marlborough, if he could have broken through the aristocratic barrier which confined high command to the privileged few; in the industrial age he found a more beneficent road to distinction, and one not limited to the members of a caste.

Mr. Brassey's family is stated by his biographer to have come over with the Conqueror. If Mr. Brassey attached any importance to his pedigree (of which there is no appearance) it is to be hoped that he was able to make it out more clearly than most of those who claim descent from companions of the Conqueror. Long after the Conquest — so long, indeed, as England and Normandy remained united under one crown — there was a constant flow of Norman immigration into England, and England swarms with people bearing Norman or French names, whose ancestors were perfectly guiltless of the bloodshed of Hastings, and made their entrance into the country as peaceful traders, and, perhaps, in even humbler capacities. What is certain is that the great contractor sprang from a line of those small landed proprietors, once the pillars of England's strength, virtue and freedom, who, in the old country have been "improved off the face of the earth" by the great landowners, while they live again on the happier side of the Atlantic. A sound morality, freedom from luxury, and a moderate degree of culture, are the heritage of the scion of such a stock.

Mr. Brassey was brought up at home till he was twelve years old, when he was sent to school at Chester. At sixteen he was articled to a surveyor, and as an initiation into great works he helped, as a pupil, to make the surveys for the then famous Holyhead road. His master, Mr. Lawton, saw his worth, and ultimately took him into partnership. The firm set up at Birkenhead, then a very small place, but destined to a greatness which, it seems, Mr. Lawton had the shrewdness to discern. At Birkenhead Mr. Brassey did well, of course; and there, after a time, he was brought into contact with George Stephenson, and by him at once appreciated and induced to engage in railways. The first contract which he obtained was for the Pembridge Viaduct, between Stafford and Wolverhampton, and for this he was enabled to tender by the liberality of his bankers, whose confidence, like that of all with whom he came into contact, he had won.

Railway making was at that time a new business, and a contractor was required to meet great demands upon his organizing power, the system of sub-contracts, which so much facilitates the work, being then only in its infancy. From George Stephenson Mr. Brassey

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passed to Mr. Locke, whose great coadjutor he speedily became. And now the question arose whether he should venture to leave his moorings at Birkenhead and launch upon the wide sea of railroad enterprise. His wife is said, by a happy inspiration, to have decided him in favor of the more important and ambitious sphere. She did so at the sacrifice of her domestic comfort; for in the prosecution of her husband's multifarious enterprises they changed their residence eleven times in the next thirteen years, several times to places abroad; and little during those years did his wife and family see of Mr. Brassey.

A high place in Mr. Brassey's calling had now been won, and it had been won not by going into rings or making corners, but by treading steadily the steep path of honor. Mr. Locke was accused of unduly favoring Mr. Brassey. Mr. Helps replies that the partiality of a man like Mr. Locke must have been based on business grounds. It was found that when Mr. Brassey had undertaken a contract, the engineer-in-chief had little to do in the way of supervision. Mr. Locke felt assured that the bargain would not only be exactly but handsomely fulfilled, and that no excuse would be pleaded for alteration or delay. After the fall of a great viaduct it was suggested to Mr. Brassey that, by representing his case, he might obtain a reduction of his loss. "No," was his reply, "I have contracted to make and maintain the road, and nothing shall prevent Thomas Brassey from being as good as his word."

As a contractor on a large scale, and especially as a contractor for foreign railroads, Mr. Brassey was led rapidly to develop the system of sub-contracting. His mode of dealing with his sub-contractors, however, was peculiar. They did not regularly contract with him, but he appointed them their work, telling them what price he should give for it. They were ready to take his word, knowing that they would not suffer by so doing. The sub-contractor who had made a bad bargain, and found himself in a scrape, anxiously looked for the coming of Mr. Brassey. "Mr. Brassey," says one of the witnesses examined for this biography, "came, saw how matters stood, and invariably satisfied the man. If a cutting taken to be clay turned out after a very short time to be rock, the sub-contractor would be getting disheartened, yet he still persevered, looking to the time when Mr. Brassey should come. He came, walking along the line as usual with a number of followers, and on coming to the cutting he looked around, counted the number of wagons at work, scanned the cutting, and took stock of the nature of the stuff.

"This is very hard," he is represented as saying to the sub-contractor. "Yes, it is a pretty deal harder than I bargained for." Mr. Brassey would linger behind, allowing the others to go on, and then commence the following conversation: "What is your price for this cutting?" "So much a yard, Sir." "It is very evident you are not getting it out for that price. Have you asked for any advance to be made to you for this rock?" "Yes, sir, but I can make no sense of them." "If you say that your price is so much, it is quite clear that you do not do it for that. I am glad that you have persevered with it; but I shall not alter your price; it must remain as it is, but the rock must be measured for you twice. Will that do for you?" "Yes, very well indeed, and I am very much obliged to you, Sir." "Very well, go on; you have done very well in persevering, and I shall look to you again." One of these tours of inspection would often cost Mr. Brassey a thousand pounds.

Mr. Brassey, like all men who have done great things in the practical world, knew his way to men's hearts. In his tours along the line he remembered even the navvies, and saluted them by their names. He understood the value of the co-operative principle as a guarantee for hearty work. His agents were made partakers in his success, and he favored the "butty-gang" system — that of letting work to a gang of a dozen men, who divide the pay, allowing something extra to the head of the gang.

Throughout his life it was a prime object with him to collect around him a good staff of well-tried and capable men. He chose well and adhered to his choice. If a man failed in one line, he did not cast him off, but tried him in another. It was well known in the labor market that he would never give a man up if he could help it. He did not even give men up when they had gone to law with him. In the appendix is a letter written by

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him to provide employment for a person who "had by some means got into a suit or reference against him," but whom he described as "knowing his work well." In hard times he still kept his staff together by subdividing the employment.

Those social philosophers who delight in imagining that there is no engineering skill, or skill of any kind in England, have to account for the fact that a large proportion of the foreign railways are of British construction. The lines built by Mr. Brassey form an imposing figure not only on the map of England, but on those of Europe, North and South America, and Australia. The Paris and Rouen Railway was the first of the series. In passing to the foreign scene of action new difficulties had to be encountered, including that of carrying over, managing and housing large bodies of British navvies, and Mr. Brassey's administrative powers were further tried and more conspicuously developed. The railway army, under its commander-in-chief, was now fully organized.

"If," says Mr. Helps, "we look at the several persons and classes engaged, they may be enumerated thus: There were the engineers of the company or of the government who were promoters of the line. There were the principal contractors, whose work had to satisfy these engineers; and there were the agents of the contractors, to whom were apportioned the several lengths of the line. These agents had the duties, in some respects, of a commissary-general in an army; and for the work to go on well, it was necessary that they should be men of much intelligence and force of character. Then there were the various artisans, such as bricklayers and masons, whose work, of course, was principally that of constructing the culverts, bridges, stations, tunnels, and viaducts, to which points of the work the attention of the agents had to be carefully directed. Again, there were the sub-contractors, whose duties I have enumerated, and under them were the gangers, the corporals, as it were, in this great army, being the persons who had the control of small bodies of workmen, say twenty or more. Then came the great body of navvies, the privates of the army, upon whose endurance and valor so much depended."

There is a striking passage in one of the Erckmann-Chatrian novels, depicting the French army going into action, with its vast bodies of troops of all arms moving over the whole field, marshalled by perfect discipline, and wielded by the single will of Napoleon. The army of industry when in action also presented a striking appearance in its way.

"I think," says one of Mr. Brassey's timekeepers, with professional enthusiasm, "as fine a spectacle as any man could witness, who is accustomed to look at work, is to see a cutting in full operation, with about twenty wagons being filled, every man at his post, and every man with his shirt open, working in the heat of the day, the ganger walking about, and everything going like clock-work. Such an exhibition of physical power attracted many French gentlemen, who came on to the cuttings at Paris and Rouen, and, looking at the English workmen with astonishment, said, '*Mon Dieu, les Anglais comme ils travaillent?*' Another thing that called forth remark was the complete silence that prevailed amongst the men. It was a fine sight to see the Englishmen that were there, with their muscular arms, and hands hairy and brown."

The army was composed of elements as motley as ever met under any commander. On the Paris and Rouen Railway eleven languages were spoken—English, Erse, Gaelic, Welsh, French, German, Belgian (Flemish), Dutch, Piedmontese, Spanish and Polish. A common lingo naturally sprang up, like the Pigeon English of China. But in the end it seems many of the navvies learnt to speak French pretty well. We are told that at first the mode in which the English "instructed" the French was "of a very original character." "They pointed to the earth to be moved, or the wagon to be filled, said the word 'd——n' emphatically, stamped their feet, and somehow or other their instructions thus conveyed, were generally comprehended by the foreigners." It is added, however, that "this form of instruction was only applicable in very simple cases."

The English navvy was found to be the first workman in the world. Some navvies utterly distanced in working power the laborers of all other countries. The French at first only earned two francs a day to the Englishman's four and a-half; but with better living, more instruction, and improved tools (for the French tools were very poor at first), the Frenchmen came to earn four francs. In the severe and dangerous work of mining, however, the Englishman maintained his superiority in nerve and steadiness. The Piedmontese were very good hands, especially for cutting rock, and were at the same time well-conducted, sober, and saving. The Neapolitans would not take any heavy work, but they seem to have been temperate and thrifty. The men from Lucca ranked midway between the Piedmontese and Neapolitans. The Germans proved less enduring than the

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French; those employed, however, were mostly Bavarians. The Belgians were good laborers. In the mode of working, the foreign laborers had, of course, much to learn from the English, whose experience in railway-making had taught them the most compendious process for moving earth.

Mr. Hawkshaw, the engineer, however says, as to the relative cost of unskilled labor in different countries: "I have come to the conclusion that its cost is much the same in all. I have had personal experience in South America, in Russia, and in Holland, as well as in my own country, and, as consulting engineer to some of the Indian and other foreign railways. I am pretty well acquainted with the value of Hindoo and other labor; and though an English laborer will do a larger amount of work than a Creole or a Hindoo, yet you have to pay them proportionately higher wages. Dutch laborers are, I think, as good as English, or nearly so; and Russian workmen are docile and easily taught, and readily adopt every method shown to them to be better than their own."

The "navvies," though rough, seem not to have been unmanageable. There are no trades' unions among them, and they seldom strike. Brandy being cheap in France, they were given to drink, which was not the French habit; but their good nature, and the freedom with which they spent their money, made them popular, and even the *gendarmes* soon found out the best way of managing them. They sometimes, but not generally, got unruly on pay day. They came to their foreign work without wife or family. The unmarried often took foreign wives. It is pleasant to hear that those who had wives and families in England sent home money periodically to them, and that they all sent money often to their parents. They sturdily kept their English habits and their English dress, with the high-low boots laced up, if they could possibly get them made.

The multiplicity of schemes now submitted to Mr. Brassey, brought out his powers of calculation and mental arithmetic, which appear to have been very great. After listening to a multitude of complicated details, he would arrive mentally in a few seconds at the approximate cost of a line. He made little use of notes, trusting to his memory, which, naturally strong, was strengthened by habit. Dealing with hundreds of people, he kept their affairs in his head, and at every halt in his journeys, even for a quarter of an hour at a railway station, he would sit down and write letters of the clearest kind. His biographer says that he was one of the greatest letter-writers ever known.

If he ever got into serious difficulties, it was not from miscalculation, but from financial embarrassment, which in 1866 pressed upon him in such a manner and with such severity, that his property of all kinds was largely committed, and he weathered the storm only by the aid of the staunch friends whom his high qualities and honorable conduct had wedded to his person and his fortunes. In the midst of his difficulties he pushed on his works to their conclusion with his characteristic rapidity. His perseverance supported his reputation, and turned the wavering balance in his favor. The daring and vigorous completion of the Lemberg and Czarnovitz works, especially, had this good effect; and an incident, in connection with them, showed the zeal and devotion which Mr. Brassey's character inspired.

The works were chiefly going on at Lemberg, five hundred miles from Vienna, and the difficulty was, how to get the money to pay the men from Vienna to Lemberg, the intervening country being occupied by the Austrian and Prussian armies. Mr. Brassey's coadjutor and devoted friend, Mr. Ofenheim, Director-General of the Company, undertook to do it. He was told there was no engine, but he found an old engine in a shed. Next he wanted an engine-driver, and he found one; but the man said that he had a wife and children, and that he would not go. His reluctance was overcome by the promise of a high reward for himself, and a provision, in case of death, for his wife and family. The two jumped on the old engine and got up steam. They then started, and ran at the rate of forty or fifty miles an hour between the sentinels of the opposing armies, who were so surprised, Mr. Ofenheim says, that they had not time to shoot him. His only fear was that there might be a rail up somewhere. But he got to Lemberg, and paid the men, who

would otherwise have gone home, leaving the line unfinished for the winter. The Emperor of Austria might well ask: "Who is this Mr. Brassey, the English contractor, for whom men are to be found who work with such zeal and risk their lives?" In recognition of a power which the Emperor had reason to envy, he sent Mr. Brassey the Cross of the Iron Crown.

It was only in Spain, "the land where two and two make five," that Mr. Brassey's powers of calculation failed him. He and his partners lost largely upon the Bilbao Railway. It seems that there was a mistake as to the nature of the soil, and that the climate proved wetter than was expected. But the firm also forgot to allow for the ecclesiastical calendar, and the stoppage of work on the numberless fête days. There were, however, other difficulties peculiarly Spanish,—antediluvian finance, antediluvian currency, the necessity of sending pay under a guard of clerks armed with revolvers, and the strange nature of the people whom it was requisite to employ —one of them a Carlist chief, living in defiance of the Government with a tail of ruffians like himself, who, when you would not transact business as he wished, "bivouacked" with his tail around your office and threatened to "kill you as he would a fly." Mr. Brassey managed notwithstanding to illustrate the civilizing power of railways by teaching the Basques the use of paper money.

Minor misfortunes of course occurred, such as the fall of the Barentin Viaduct on the Rouen and Havre Railway, a brick structure one hundred feet high and a third of a mile in length, which had just elicited the praise of the Minister of Public Works. Rapid execution in bad weather, and inferior mortar, were the principal causes of this accident. By extraordinary effort the viaduct was built in less than six months, a display of energy and resource which the company acknowledged by an allowance of £1,000. On the Bilbao Railway some of the works were destroyed by very heavy rains. The agent telegraphed to Mr. Brassey to come at once, as a bridge had been washed down. Three hours afterwards came a telegraph announcing that a large bank was carried away, and next morning another saying that the rain continued and more damage had been done. Mr. Brassey, turning to a friend, said, laughing: "I think I had better wait till I hear that the wind has ceased, so that when I do go I may see what is *left* of the works, and estimate all the disasters at once, and so save a second journey."

Mr. Brassey's business rapidly developed to an immense extent, and, instead of being contractor for one or two lines, he became a sort of contractor-in-chief, and a man to be consulted by all railway proprietors. In thirty-six years he executed no less than one hundred and seventy railway and other contracts. In his residence, as in his enterprises, he now became cosmopolitan, and lived a good deal on the rail. He had the physical power to bear this life. His brother-in-law says, "I have known him come direct from France to Rugby, having left Havre the night before—he would have been engaged in the office the whole day. He would then come down to Rugby by the mail train at twelve o'clock, and it was his common practice to be on the works by six o'clock the next morning. He would frequently walk from Rugby to Nuneaton, a distance of sixteen miles. Having arrived at Nuneaton in the afternoon, he would proceed the same night by road to Tamworth; and the next morning he would be out on the road so soon that he had the reputation among his staff of being the first man on the works. He used to proceed over the works from Tamworth to Stafford, walking the greater part of the distance; and would frequently proceed that same evening to Lancaster, in order to inspect the works there in progress under the contract which he had for the execution of the railway from Lancaster to Carlisle."

In constructing the Great Northern Railway the difficulties of the Fen Country were met and surmounted. Mr. Brassey's chief agent in this was Mr. Ballard, a man self-raised from the ranks of labor, but indebted for the eminence which he ultimately attained to Mr. Brassey's discrimination in selecting him for the arduous undertaking. He has borne interesting testimony to his superior's comprehensiveness and rapidity of view, the directness with which he went to the important point, disregarding secondary matters, and economizing his time and thought.

The Italian Railway enterprises of Mr. Brassey owed their origin to the economical genius of Count Cavour, and

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their execution drew from the Count the declaration that Mr. Brassey was "one of the most remarkable men he knew; clear-headed, cautious, yet very enterprising, and fulfilling his engagements faithfully." "We never," said the Count, "had a difficulty with him." And he added that "Mr. Brassey would make a splendid Minister of Public Works. Mr. Brassey took shares gallantly, and when their value had risen, most generously resigned them, with a view to enabling the government to interest Piedmontese investors in the undertaking. So far was he from being a marker of "corners." It is justly remarked that these Piedmontese railroads, constructed by English enterprise, were a most important link in the chain of events which brought about the emancipation and unification of Italy.

Mr. Brassey has left on record the notable remark that the railway from Turin to Novara was completed for about the same money as was spent in obtaining the Bill for the railway from London to York. If the history of railway bills in the British Parliament, of which this statement gives us an inkling, could be disclosed, it would probably be one of the most scandalous revelations in commercial history. The contests which led to such ruinous expense and to so much demoralization, both of Parliament and of the commercial world, were a consequence of adopting the system of uncontrolled competition, in place of that of government control. Mr. Brassey was in favor of the system of government control.

Of all Mr. Brassey's undertakings not one was superior in importance to that with which Canadians are best acquainted —the Grand Trunk Railway, with the Victoria Bridge. It is needless here to describe this enterprise, or to recount the tragic annals of the loss brought on thousands of shareholders, which, financially speaking, was its calamitous sequel. The severest part of the undertaking was the Victoria Bridge. "The first working season there," says one of the chief agents, "was a period of difficulty, trouble and disaster." The agents of the contractors had no experience of the climate. There were numerous strikes among the workmen. The cholera committed dreadful ravages in the neighborhood. In one case, out of a gang of two hundred men, sixty were sick at one time, many of whom ultimately died. The shortness of the working season in this country involved much loss of time. It was seldom that the setting of the masonry was fairly commenced before the middle of August, and it was certain that all work must cease at the end of November. Then there were the shoving of the ice at the beginning and breaking up of the frosts, and the collisions between floating rafts 250 feet long and the staging erected for putting together the tubes. Great financial difficulties were experienced in consequence of the Crimean War. The mechanical difficulties were also immense, and called for extraordinary efforts both of energy and invention.

The Victoria Bridge, however, was completed, as had been intended, in December, 1859, and was formally opened by the Prince of Wales in the following year. "The devotion and energy of the large number of workmen employed," says Mr. Hodges, "can hardly be praised too highly. Once brought into proper discipline, they worked as we alone can work against difficulties. They have left behind them in Canada an imperishable monument of British skill, pluck, science and perseverance in this bridge, which they not only designed but constructed."

The whole of the iron for the tubes was prepared at Birkenhead, but so well prepared that, in the centre tube, consisting of no less than 10,309 pieces, in which nearly half a million of holes were punched, not one plate required alteration, neither was there a plate punched wrong. The faculty of invention, however, was developed in the British engineers and workmen by the air of the New World. The same increase of inventiveness, according to Mr. Hodges, was visible in the ordinary workman, when transferred from the perfect but mechanical and cramping routine of British industry, to a country where he has to mix trades and turn his hands to all kinds of work. "In England he is a machine, but as soon as he gets out to the United States he becomes an intellectual being." Comparing the German with the British mechanic, Mr. Hodges says: "I do not think that a German is a better man than an Englishman; but I draw this distinction between them, that when a German leaves school he begins to edu-

cate himself, but the Englishman does not, for, as soon as he casts off the thraldom of school, he learns nothing more unless he is forced to do it, and if he is forced to do it, he will then beat the German. An Englishman acts well when he is put under compulsion by circumstances."

Labor being scarce, a number of French-Canadians were, at Mr. Brassey's suggestion, brought up in organized gangs, each having an Englishman or an American as their leader. We are told, however, that they proved useless except for very light work. "They could ballast, but they could not excavate. They could not even ballast as the English navvy does, continuously working at filling for the whole day."

The Danish railways brought the British navvy again into comparison with his foreign rivals. Mr. Rowan, the agent of Messrs. Peto and Brassey, was greatly pleased with his Danish laborers, but, on being pressed, said, "No man is equal to the British navvy; but the Dane, from his steady, constant labor, is a good workman, and a first-class one will do as much work in a day as an Englishman." The Dane takes time; his habit is in summer to begin work at four in the morning, and continue till eight in the evening, taking five intervals of rest.

The Danish engineers, in Mr. Rowan's judgment, are over-educated, and, as a consequence, wanting in decisiveness. "They have been in the habit of applying to their masters for everything, finding out nothing for themselves; the consequence is that they are children, and cannot form a judgment. It is the same in the North of Germany; the great difficulty is that you cannot get them to come to a decision. They want always to inquire and to investigate, and they never come to a result." This evidence must have been given some years ago, for of late it has been made pretty apparent that the investigations and inquiries of the North Germans do not prevent their coming to a decision, or that decision from leading to a result. Mr. Helps seizes the opportunity for a thrust at the system of competitive examination, which has taken from the heads of departments the power of "personal selection." The answer to him is Sedan. A bullet through your heart is the strongest proof which logic can afford that the German, from whose rifle it comes, was not prevented by his knowledge of the theory of projectiles from marking his man with promptness and taking a steady aim. That over-exertion of the intellect in youth does a man harm, is a true though not a very fruitful proposition; but knowledge does not destroy decisiveness: it only turns it from the decisiveness of a bull into the decisiveness of a man. Which nations do the great works? The educated nations, or Mexico and Spain?

The Australian railways brought out two facts, one gratifying, the other the reverse. The gratifying fact was that the unlimited confidence which Mr. Brassey reposed in his agents was repaid by their zeal and fidelity in his service. The fact which was the reverse of gratifying was, that the great advantage which the English laborer gains in Australia, from the higher wages and comparative cheapness of living, is counteracted by his love of drink.

The Argentine Railway had special importance and interest, in opening up a vast and most fruitful and salubrious region to European emigration. Those territories offer room and food for myriads. "The population of Russia, that hard-featured country, is about 100,000,000; the population of the Argentine Republic, to which nature has been so bountiful, and in which she is so beautiful, is about 1,700,000." If ever government in the South American States becomes more settled, we shall find them formidable rivals.

The Indian Railways are also likely to be a landmark in the history of civilization. They unite that vast country and its people, both materially and morally, break down caste, bring the natives from all parts to the centres of instruction, and distribute the produce of the soil evenly and rapidly, so as to mitigate famines. The Orissa famine would never have occurred, had Mr. Brassey's works been there. What effect the railways will ultimately have on British rule is another question.

There were periods in Mr. Brassey's career during which he and his partners were giving employment to 80,000 persons, upon works requiring seventeen millions of capital for their completion. It is also satisfactory to know, that in the foreign countries and colonies over which

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his operations extended, he was instrumental in raising the wages and condition of the working class, as well as in affording to the *élite* of that class opportunities for rising to higher positions.

His remuneration for all this, though in the aggregate very large, was by no means excessive. Upon seventy-eight millions of money laid out in the enterprises which he conducted, he retained two millions and a half, that is as nearly as possible three per cent. The rest of his fortune consisted of accumulations. Three per cent. was not more than a fair payment for the brain-work, the anxiety and the risk. The risk, it must be recollected, was constant, and there were moments at which, if Mr. Brassey had died, he would have been found comparatively poor. His fortune was made, not by immoderate gains upon any one transaction, but by reasonable profits in a business which was of vast extent, and owed its vast extent to a reputation fairly earned by probity, energy and skill. We do not learn that he figured in any lobby, or formed a member of any ring. Whether he was a Norman or not, he was too much a gentleman, in the best sense of the term, to crawl to opulence by low and petty ways. He left no stain on the escutcheon of a captain of industry.

Nor when riches increased did he set his heart upon them. His heart was set on the work rather than on the pay. The monuments and enterprise of his skill were more to him than the millions. He seems even to have been rather careless in keeping his accounts. He gave away freely — as much as £200,000, it is believed — in the course of his life. His accumulations arose not from parsimony but from the smallness of his personal expenses. He hated show and luxury, and kept a moderate establishment, which the increase of his wealth never induced him to extend. He seems to have felt a singular diffidence as to his capacity for aristocratic expenditure. The conversation turning one day on the immense fortunes of certain noblemen, he said, "I understand it is easy and natural enough for those who are born and brought up to it, to spend £50,000 or even £150,000 a year; but I should be very sorry to have to undergo the fatigue of even spending £30,000 a year. I believe such a job as that would drive me mad." He felt an equally strange misgiving as to his capacity for aristocratic idleness.

Of tinsel, which sometimes is as corrupting to vulgar souls as money, this man seems to have been as regardless as he was of pelf. He received the Cross of the Iron Crown from the Emperor of Austria. He accepted what was graciously offered, but he said that, as an Englishmen, he did not know what good Crosses were to him. The circumstance reminded him that he had received other Crosses, but he had to ask his agent what they were, and where they were. He was told that they were the Legion of Honor of France, and the Chevaliership of Italy; but the Crosses could not be found. Duplicates were procured to be taken to Mrs. Brassey, who, her husband remarked, would be glad to possess them all.

Such millionaires would do unmixed good in the world; but unfortunately they are apt to die and leave their millions, and the social influence which the millions confer, to "that unfeathered two-legged thing, a son." This is by no means said with a personal reference. On the contrary, it is evident that Mr. Brassey was especially fortunate in his heir. We find some indication of this in a chapter towards the close of Mr. Help's volume, in which are thrown together the son's miscellaneous recollections of the father. The chapter affords further proof that the great contractor was not made of the same clay as the Fisks and Vanderbilts — that he was not a mere market-rigger and money-grubber — but a really great man, devoted to a special calling. He is represented by his son as having taken a lively interest in a wide and varied range of subjects — engineering subjects especially, as a matter of course, but not engineering subjects alone. He studied countries and their people, evincing the utmost interest in Chicago, speculating on the future industrial prosperity of Canada, and imparting the results of his observations admirably when he got home.

Like all great men, he had a poetic element in his character. He loved the beauties of nature, and delighted in mountain scenery. He was a great sight-seer, and when he visited a city on business, went through its churches, public buildings, and picture-galleries, as assiduously as a tourist. For half an

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hour he stood gazing with delight on the Maison Carrée, at Nismes. For sculpture and painting he had a strong taste, and the Venus of Milo "was a joy to him." He had a keen eye for beauty, shapeliness and comeliness everywhere, in porcelain, in furniture, in dress, in a well-built yacht, in a well-appointed regiment of horse. Society, too, he liked, in spite of his simplicity of habits; loved to gather his friends around his board, and was always a genial host. For literature he had no time, but he enjoyed oratory, and liked to hear good reading. He used to test his son's progress in reading, at the close of each half year, by making him read aloud a chapter of the Bible. His good sense confined his ambition to his proper sphere, and prevented him from giving ear to any solicitations to go into politics, which he had not leisure to study, and which he knew ought not to be handled by ignorance. His own leanings were Conservative; but his son, who is a Liberal, testifies that his father never offered him advice on political matters, or remonstrated with him on a single vote which he gave in the House of Commons. It is little to the discredit of a man so immersed in business that he should have been fascinated, as he was, by the outward appearance of perfect order presented by the French Empire and by the brilliancy of its visible edifice, not discerning the explosive forces which its policy was all the time accumulating in the dark social realms below.

Mr. Brassey's advice was often sought by parents who had sons to start in the world. "As usual a disposition was shown to prefer a career which did not involve the apparent degradation of learning a trade practically, side by side with operatives in a workshop. But my father who had known, by his wide experience, the immense value of a technical knowlege of a trade or business as compared with general educational advantages of the second order, and who knew how much more easy it is to earn a living as a skilful artisan than as a clerk, possessing a mere general education, always urged those who sought his advice to begin by giving to their sons a practical knowledge of a trade."

"My father," says Mr. (now Lord) Brassey, "ever mindful of his own struggles and efforts in early life, evinced at all times the most anxious disposition to assist young men to enter upon a career. The small loans which he advanced for this purpose, and the innumerable letters which he wrote in the hope of obtaining for his young clients help or employment in other quarters, constitute a bright and most honorable feature in his life." His powers of letter-writing were enormous, and it seems to us were exercised even to excess. So much writing would, at least, in the case of any ordinary man, have consumed too much of the energy which should be devoted to thought. His correspondence was brought with his luncheon basket when he was shooting on the moors. After a long day's journey he sat down in the coffee room of the hotel, and wrote thirty-two letters before he went to bed. He never allowed a letter, even a begging letter, to remain unanswered; and, says his son, "the same benignity and courtesy which marked his conduct in every relation of life, prevaded his whole correspondence." "In the many volumes of his letters which are preserved, I venture to affirm, that there is not the faintest indication of an ungenerous or unkindly sentiment — not a sentence which is not inspired by the spirit of equity and justice, and by universal charity."

The only blemish which the son can recollect in the father's character is a want of firmness in blaming when blame was due, and an incapacity of refusing a request or rejecting a proposal strongly urged by others. The latter defect was, in his son's judgment, the cause of the greatest disasters which he experienced as a man of business. Both defects were closely allied to virtues — extreme tenderness of heart and consideration for the feelings of others.

"He was graceful," says Mr. Brassey's son, in conclusion, "in every movement, always intelligent in observation, with an excellent command of language, and only here and there betrayed, by some slight provincialisms, in how small a degree he had in early life enjoyed the educational advantages of those with whom his high commercial position in later years placed him in constant communication. But these things are small in comparison to the greater points of character by which he seemed to me to be distinguished. In all he said or did he showed himself to be inspired by that chivalry of heart and mind, which must truly ennoble him who possesses it, and without which one cannot be a perfect gentleman."

Mention has been made of his great generosity. One of his old agents having lost all his earnings, Mr. Brassey gave him several new missions, that he might have a chance of recovering himself. But the agent died suddenly, and his wife nearly at the same time, leaving six orphan children without provision. Mr. Brassey gave up, in their favor, a policy of insurance which he held as security for several thousands,

and, in addition, headed a subscription list for them with a large sum. It seems that his delicacy in giving was equal to his generosity; that of his numberless benefactions, very few were published in subscription lists, and that his right hand seldom knew what his left hand did.

His refinement was of the truly moral kind, and of the kind that tells on others. Not only was coarse and indecent language checked in his presence, but the pain he evinced at all outbreaks of unkind feeling, and the manifestation of petty jealousies, operated strongly in preventing any such displays from taking place before him. As one who was the most intimate with him observed, "his people seemed to enter into a higher atmosphere when they were in his presence, conscious, no doubt, of the intense dislike which he had of everything that was mean, petty, or contentious."

Mr. Helps tells us that the tenderheartedness which pervaded Mr. Brassey's character was never more manifested than on the occasion of any illness of his friends. At the busiest period of his life he would travel hundreds of miles to be at the bedside of a sick or dying friend. In his turn he experienced, in his own last illness, similar manifestations of affectionate solicitude. Many of the persons, we are told, who had served him in foreign countries and at home, came from great distances solely for the chance of seeing once more their old master whom they loved so much. They were men of all classes, humble navvies as well as trusted agents. They would not intrude upon his illness, but would wait for hours in the hall, in the hope of seeing him borne to his carriage, and getting a shake of the hand or a sign of friendly recognition. "The world," remarks Mr. Helps, "is after all not so ungrateful as it is sometimes supposed to be; those who deserve to be loved generally are loved, having elicited the faculty of loving which exists to a great extent in all of us."

"Mr. Brassey," we are told, "had ever been a very religious man. His religion was of that kind which most of us would desire for ourselves — utterly undisturbed by doubts of any sort, entirely tolerant, not built upon small or even upon great differences of belief. He clung resolutely and with entire hopefulness to that creed, and abode by that form of worship, in which he had been brought up as a child." The religious element in his character was no doubt strong, and lay at the root of his tender-heartedness and his charity as well as of the calm resignation with which he met disaster, and his indifference to gain. At the time of a great panic, when things were at the worst, he only said: "Never mind, we must be content with a little less, that is all." This was when he supposed himself to have lost a million. The duty of religious inquiry, which he could not perform himself, he would no doubt have recognized in those to whose lot it falls to give their fellow-men assurance of religious truth.

Mr. Brassey's wife said of him that "he was a most unworldly man." This may seem a strange thing to say of a great contractor and a millionaire. Yet, in the highest sense, it was true. Mr. Brassey was not a monk; his life was passed in the world, and in the world's most engrossing, and, as it proves in too many cases, most contaminating business. Yet, if the picture of him presented to us be true, he kept himself "unspotted from the world."

His character is reflected in the portrait which forms the frontispiece to the biography, and on which those who pursue his calling will do well sometimes to look. GOLDWIN SMITH, D. C. L.

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The London "Times" announces its intention to issue, at the first of November, a new weekly periodical, entitled "Literature," to be edited by Mr. H. D. Traill. Messrs. Harper & Brothers are to be the agents on this side of the Atlantic. The new weekly, as its name indicates, will be devoted solely to the world of books. It is intended to be the organ of the literary classes, in the widest sense, embracing in its purview not only English, but Continental and American publications. As announced, its object is to assist the public in forming a just estimate of current literature by reviews of all books worthy of notice; "to maintain a high critical standard by a strict impartiality between rival schools of thought, theological, literary, political, or scientific; and to provide trustworthy information on all matters of literary interest." There is, unquestionably, room in these times of active thought for such a periodical, particularly where the promise of independent opinion and competent judgment is assured. We shall look with interest for the advent of "Literature."

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THE FESTIVAL OF ST. JEAN BAPTISTE

THE nickname, St. Jean Baptiste, has long been applied, but not in a disrespectful way, to the French-Canadians. Its origin dates back to the year 1812, during the time of the war, when the French, under the command of De Salaberry, covered themselves with glory at Chateauguay. The story goes that at roll-call, one morning, militiaman after militiaman answered to the cognomen Jean Baptiste. An English officer, standing by, was curiously surprised at this, and unable to keep silence, broke out with, "By Jove, they are all Jean Baptistes." English military men ever afterward called the French-Canadian *habitants* Jean Baptistes. The latter good naturedly accepted the term. It has always been a favorite family name with them, and small indeed is the family — and French-Canadian families are not small — which does not boast of a Jean Baptiste.

French Canada has adopted St. John the Baptist as the Patron Saint of the Province, and he holds a place in their affections analogous to that held by St. George, St. Andrew, and St. Patrick in the hearts of Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Irishmen. The natal day of the Saint is celebrated with great pomp and solemnity, in the cities as well as in the parishes. As a fête, it dates back to 1834, when M. Duvernay, a patriotic and chivalrous Canadian journalist and publicist, founded the first St. Jean Baptiste Society in the country, and endowed it with principles which have been maintained in their integrity ever since. The aim of the society has grown wider, however, and to-day it forms part of the national existence, and exercises a powerful influence in the social, moral and intellectual developments of the people. From a very small beginning it has grown to be a great institution. From its ranks Parliament is recruited, despite the fact that party politics are carefully excluded from its curriculum, and the principles and lessons of an ample nationality only are taught.

St. Jean the Baptiste's day falls on the 24th of June — the loveliest season of the year, when the maple, the emblem of the Society and of Canada, is in full foliage.

The historians of the festival love to trace its origin to times remote, and they give a religious meaning to almost every feature in the day's celebration. The early Christians adopted the lighting of bonfires on St. John the Baptist's Day. In more modern days the peasants of the Breton country and of Normandy — many of whom came to Canada and settled, bringing their customs with them — made it a rule to light huge fires as manifestations of joy over the reception of good news or tidings of gladness. The "Magazine Pittoresque," to quote Sulte, "contains an engraving showing Breton peasants of our day dancing around a bonfire on the public square. The betrothed couples, who are to be married within the year, hold each other by the hand and jump over the lighted brands." The first settlers, he adds, brought with them the custom of celebrating the feast of St. John. On the authority of Père Le Clercq, the famous Recollet priest, whose book, "Premier l'Etablissement de la Foi dans la Nouvelle France," is a rare treasure in the collection of the Bibliophile. Abbé Ferland, the ecclesiastical historian of Canada, says: —

"The year 1624 was remarkable for a religious celebration at Quebec, at which all the French and many Indians were present. It was in fulfilment of a vow made in honor of St. Joseph, who, on this occasion, was chosen as the first patron of New France. Since then the devotion for St. Joseph has always remained bright and strong among Canadians, as may be seen by the many churches placed under his protection, and the confraternities established in his honor."

But St. Joseph did not remain the Patron Saint of New France. St. John was to reign as the head of national aspiration of the people. Père Le Jeune, under date 1636, thus writes: —

"An Indian, on observing the solemn celebration on the eve of St. John's Day, thought it was for the purpose of driving away the Manitou, and said that he knew far better than they how to remove him, and send him away; that was why we lived so long. This confirmed me in my opinion that they always make an uproar and beat their drums to drive away the Devil, so that he will not kill their sick. I fear that, some day, they will come and ask us to fire our cannon to cure them."

And here are two other quotations, this time from Père Lalement, in the "Journal Des Jesuites:" —

"1646. On the 23rd June, the St. John's fires were lighted at about half-past eight in the

evening. The Governor sent M. Tronquet to know if we would go and see it. Père Vimont and myself went to join him in the fort. We went together toward the fire, the governor applied the torch, and while he was doing so I chanted the *Ut queant laxis*, and the prayer. M. de Saint Sauveur was not there; we must invite him another time. Five cannon shots were fired, and two or three salvos of musketry. We returned between nine and ten o clock."

"1647. The St. John's fire was lighted like last year. I was not present. M. de Saint Sauveur officiated."

"1648. On the 23d June the fire was lighted as usual. I was present, as were also Père la Jeune and Père Gresion. The Governor came at about half-past eight o'clock to get me. We went for a walk in his gardens, and at about a quarter past nine we went to the fire. The Governor applied the torch as usual. I chanted the *Ut queant laxis* when the fire was lighted, the *Benedictus* and the prayer of St. John, the *Dominus salvum fac regem*, and the prayer for the king. The whole without a surplice. We returned at ten o'clock."

Sixteen years later, the solemnity of St. John's fire was celebrated with unusual pomp. The Bishop was present, clad in pontifical robes, and surrounded by his clergy in surplices. As the record says, Monseigneur "handed the torch of white wax to M. de Tracey, who returned it to him, and insisted on his being the first to light the fire." To this adds Sulte:—

"The splendor of the ceremony was no doubt enhanced by the presence of the soldiers of the Régiment de Carignan, who had come out the previous year."

In that very excellent collection of legends and tales, illustrative of French Canadian manners and customs, "The Canadians of Old," by Philippe Aubert de Gaspé, twice translated into English, the reader will find part of a chapter devoted to St. John the Baptist's Day—a day of rest, of merry making, and of picnicking. Says our author, in Roberts' graceful translation, which is used for convenience:—

"In every family great preparations were made for this important occasion. Within doors there was great cleaning up, the whitewash brush went everywhere; the floors were scrubbed, and strewn with pine needles; the fatted calf was killed, and the shop-keepers drove a thriving trade in drinks. Thus, by the 23rd June, the eve of the feast, every house was thronged with pilgrims from the manor and the presbytery down. The Seigneur used to present the consecrated bread, while the collection at the high mass was taken up by two young gentlemen and two young ladies, friends of the Seigneur, invited down from Quebec long beforehand. For the consecrated bread and for the little cakes (*cousins*) which accompanied it there was no small need in that multitude which thronged not only the church but the surrounding yard. All the doors of the church stood wide open, that everybody might have his share in the service."

The author then goes on to describe the dinner at the Presbytery, and the luncheons in the little wood of cedars, pines and firs, where, around snowy tablecloths, the picnickers gathered merrily and enjoyed themselves to their heart's content between mass and vespers. The bonfire festival on the eve of St. John's Day, brought over from Normandy, is thus described in M. de Gaspé's charming volume:—

"An octagonal pyramid, about ten feet high, was constructed before the main entrance of the church. Covered with branches of fir interwoven amid the strips of cedar which formed its surface, this structure was eminently ornamental. The Curé, accompanied by his assistants, marched out and recited certain prayers belonging to the occasion; then, after having blessed the structure, he set a torch to the little piles of straw arranged at the eight corners of the pyramid. Straightway the whole pile burst, crackling into flame, amid the shouts and gun-firing of the crowd, which remained in attendance till the pyramid was burned to ashes."

De Gaspé tells us how the people of the north shore of the St. Lawrence sent messages in the old days to their friends on the south side, according to custom, on the eve of St. Jean Baptiste. The communication was made by signals, well understood by the *habitants;* thus, if the fire burned long and steadily the news was good. If it sank gradually there was sickness in the family. If it was extinguished suddenly, it meant death. If it was extinguished more than once, it signified just so many deaths. For a grown person there was a strong blaze, for a child a feeble one, and so on.

Sulte tells how the festival was observed in his district, that of Three Rivers:—

"Fires lighted on the highlands, flashed from hill to hill the signal of public rejoicings. The first bath in the river was taken on the 23d of June, amid the sound of songs and general mirth. At Nicolet College, fifty or sixty years ago, a general holiday was given, on which picnics and excursions on the river were indulged in."

In the parishes the primitive form of celebrating the fête of St. Jean Baptiste is still kept up. The huge bonfire blazes, and in every house there is merrymaking and feasting. In the larger cities of Quebec province the festival is observed with more ceremony. Early in the morn-

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ing the members of the St. Jean Baptiste Society assemble at their place of meeting, and, under the guidance of a mounted marshal, form themselves into a procession. The various organizations of the body appear in full uniform, usually the dress selected is that of the cavaliers, velvets and colored stuffs comprising the materials out of which the costumes are made. A cocked hat and sword complete the gorgeous outfit. The cavaliers are mounted, and, with their brilliant banners, form a striking and picturesque feature in the procession. The different sections are dressed in regalia peculiar to their especial order and rank. Some adopt the quasi-military uniform, others the simple black coat and pantaloons, with tall, silk hat, and maple-leaf badge in the lapel of the coat. Bands of music head each body, and scattered here and there along the line of march are great wagons and cars, representative of various industries.

In each of these prettily decked vehicles the inmates ply their calling. The boat-builders make their boats and canoes; the baker bakes his bread and rolls; the blacksmith, the whitesmith, the shoemaker and the hatter worker at their trades in the great carts, which roll along the streets on St. Jean Baptiste day to the strains of "*vive la Canadienne*," or "*La Claire Fontaine*." The *pièce de résistance* is, of course, the gigantic car which carries St. Jean Baptiste and the lamb. This is a most gorgeous affair, and attracts every eye, for it is never absent from a St. Jean Baptiste procession, and much effort is bestowed upon it. On either side of the street, at stated distances, are placed young maple trees. The procession goes to mass, and listens to a sermon full of patriotism and nationalism. When the religious service is over, the members re-form, and on the way home salute the Cardinal or Archbishop, as the case may be, the Lieutenant-Governor, and the Mayor. Addresses to each are usually presented, and there is always a reply, the burden of which is a strong plea for the preservation intact of the laws, language, and institutions of the country. This lesson is forever dinned into the ears of the populace, and it must be confessed the pupils are apt enough to retain it.

Luncheons, dinners and suppers go on, after the procession is over. At these enormous banquets, there are speeches of the impassioned order, and patriotic songs without number enliven the hours. Later in the evening the celebrators meet at private houses, where dancing, music and cards are indulged in until the morn of another day appears. The French Canadians enjoy heartily this festival. They give their whole mind to its celebration. The birthday of the Queen and the natal day of the Canadian Dominion are as nothing to it. They will work on those days, but on St. Jean Baptiste Day, he would be a poor French Canadian, indeed, who would wield his hammer or engage in any toil. On that day the French Canadian plays, wears his best clothes, and pins the maple-leaf upon his breast. He reiterates again and again the motto of his race, and swells with patriotic feeling. But through it all, he is orderly and circumspect, and no one can, with truth, charge him with having overstepped the bounds of propriety. GEORGE STEWART, D. C. L.

JANE AUSTEN, THE NOVELIST:

AN ANALYSIS AND ESTIMATE

VERY attractive, alike in person and in the characteristics of her genius, was the novelist Jane Austen, who once modestly said of herself, that she was "the most unlearned and uninformed female who ever dared to be an authoress." And yet she has been praised by such men of letters as Sir Walter Scott, Lord Macaulay, M. Guizot, and by that brilliant critic, George Henry Lewes, the husband of George Eliot, while Professor Goldwin Smith has written a most charming and sympathetic biography of her, with a skilful analysis of her novels.* A re-reading the other day of Mr. Goldwin Smith's memoir afforded us such delight that we cannot forego the

* "Life of Jane Austen," by Goldwin Smith, D. C. L.; "Great Writers, Series," London, Walter Scott; New York, Charles Scribner's Sons.

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pleasure of a few comments in SELF CULTURE on the book and its study of one of the greatest of English novelists. The little volume is not the first indication we have had that Mr. Goldwin Smith was an admirer of Jane Austen and her writings. We recall an appreciative review, which appeared a number of years ago in the New York "Nation," of a memoir of the novelist put forth by her nephew the Rev. J. E. Austen-Leigh, and which was happily included in a volume of essays from Mr. Goldwin Smith's brilliant pen. The review closed with these words:—

"Jane Austen possessed a real and rare gift, and she rendered a good account of it. If the censer which she held among the priests of art was not of the costliest, the incense was of the purest. If she cannot be ranked with the very greatest masters of fiction, she has charmed many, and none can draw from her any but innocent delight."

From the same source we have the following description of the novelist's environment within which she did her charming work:—

"Jane Austen lived in the society of English country gentlemen and their families as they were in the last century—a society affluent, comfortable, domestic, rather monotonous, without the interest which attaches to the struggles of labor, without tragic events or figures; seldom, in fact, rising dramatically above the level of sentimental comedy, but presenting, nevertheless, its varieties of character, its vicissitudes, its moral lessons—in a word, its humanity. She has painted it as it was, in all its features, the most tragic as well as the most comic, avoiding only melodrama. . . . An undertone of irony, never obtrusive but everywhere perceptible, shows that the artist herself knew very well that she was not painting gods and Titans, and keeps everything on the right level."

Her present biographer has himself many sides to his active, laborious and worthy life. In the memoir he has given us of the gentle novelist, we venture to think that no side of his own character is more truly and delightfully revealed than in the fond glimpses we have here of a quiet, refined English home, and of the writer's unfeigned love for a simple and happy domestic life.

The brief story of Jane Austen's career, Mr. Goldwin Smith, we need hardly say, has admirably told us, and with excellent taste. The tone of the book is throughout quiet and subdued. There is no over-drawn estimate and no overcoloring of praise. Everywhere, however, does the gifted authoress get justice; and nowhere else can we look for such an exposition and commentary, as we have here, of her inimitable novels. Mr. Goldwin Smith's work in this latter respect is unique, and to those who know Miss Austen's writings it will be deemed a high and happily-rendered service. The little book is one to give pleasure to the reader, and to be valued by him in proportion to his capacity to recognize its rare excellence as the work of a master. The passages abound which tempt to quotation—passages full not only of literary beauty, but of wise and acute reflection. Nor are we surprised that these should be called forth by our author, for has not the verdict of the best minds pronounced her novels the perfection of art? Macaulay, to whom we have already referred, speaks of her as a woman of whom England is justly proud, and it is said that he even proposed to write an account of her life. In his journal he remarks: "I have now read, once again, all of Miss Austen's novels—charming they are. There are in the world no compositions which approach nearer to perfection."

Not less hearty is the literary appraisement of so competent a critic as Sir Walter Scott. In his diary is the following entry: "Read again, and for the third time at least, 'Pride and Prejudice.' That young lady had a talent for describing the involvements of feelings and characters of ordinary life, which is to me the most wonderful I ever met with. The big bow-wow strain I can do myself, like any now going, but the exquisite touch, which renders ordinary, commonplace things and characters interesting from the truth of the description and the sentiment is denied me. What a pity such a gifted creature died so early!" Equally glowing is the praise awarded her by Southey, Coleridge, Miss Mitford, Sydney Smith, Archbishop Whately and Sir James Mackintosh. George Eliot speaks of her "as the greatest artist that has ever written . . . the most perfect master over the means to an end."

Mr. Goldwin Smith's memoir opens with the remark that on Jane Austen "was bestowed, though in a humble form, the gift which had been bestowed on Homer, Shakespeare, Cervantes, Scott, and a few others—the gift of creative power." This she had in an extraordinary degree, though her own

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generation, owing partly to the fact that her novels were published anonymously, was slow to acknowledge it. While she lived, her modesty and retiring demeanor stood in the way of public recognition of her merits. Her own age, moreover, had as yet hardly broken away from other idols. The reading world of the time was still under the domination of Mrs. Radcliffe and the other romance novelists. One of her tales, "Northanger Abbey," was written to ridicule the school of romantic and sentimental fiction of the period, with its unreal situations and impossible characters. Her writings were a protest against literary wizardry and exaggerated sentiment. She was the herald of quite a new and a more healthy type of novel, that which portrayed natural incident and quiet, uneventful domestic life. In this line her writings are still almost the best of their class.

But though Jane Austen's novels are devoid of thrilling incident, there is much in them to amuse and interest, for, as Mr. Goldwin Smith tells us, she faithfully held the mirror up to her time. It was a little and tranquil world she lived in, but she depicts it minutely and to the very life. Numberless and most delicate are the little touches of manners and customs, as well as of the peculiarities of character which she portrays. Nor, as her biographer truthfully relates, to the class now much in vogue of novels with a purpose, or propagandist novels, do those of Jane Austen belong.

"Her object," says Mr. Goldwin Smith, "as a writer of fiction is not to form your opinions, theological, political or social, nor is it to reform your character, but to impart to you the pleasure which she felt herself. . . . Jane Austen, by her creative genius, has produced so many charming groups of figures among whom the serious and comic parts of character are distributed. At her word they move from scene to scene through the little drama of their lives, developing their characters as they go. You look on, enjoy the show and forget your cares. Perhaps at the same time you insensibly improve your knowledge of humanity and of yourself, enlarge your sympathies, and, it may be, take in some lesson of unselfishness, courtesy, respect for the feelings of others. No higher mission had Jane Austen, no higher mission did she pretend to have; if you want a theologian, a political philosopher, a regenerator of society, or a moral disciplinarian in your novelist, you must look elsewhere."

Few are the personal incidents in Jane Austen's quiet and uneventful life. She was born in 1775 at the parsonage of Steventon, Hampshire, her father being rector of that and the neighboring parish. She was the youngest of seven children, two of whom became admirals in the navy, one was a clergyman, and another — her sister Cassandra — was her life-long and inseparable companion. They were a happy and most affectionate family. When the brothers went out into the world their places were taken by the younger generation of Jane's nephews and nieces. Authorship in no way disturbed or interfered with the quiet routine of the domestic circle. In her own day few knew Jane Austen as a writer of novels, and there was consequently no lionizing, or visits from patrons or literary acquaintances. But four of her novels were published in her lifetime, and these appeared anonymously. Even at Bath and Southampton, where the family resided for some time, Jane was known as an author to but a limited number of friends. Though she loved company and the simple pleasures of life, home seems to have been most attractive to her, and she and her sister took early to the wearing of the spinster's mob cap. Yet she was well fitted to shine in society, for besides being clever and cultured she had a sweet disposition and more than an average share of good looks. Neither she nor her only sister ever married, though both are supposed to have had affairs of the heart, which destiny in each case brought to nought.

The Austens appear to have been comfortably off, for Jane and her sister went into society, and the family kept a carriage. In Jane's case, at any rate, novel-writing was not pursued for its pecuniary rewards. Disappointing were her first efforts to find a publisher. The manuscript of one of her tales, for which she received but ten pounds, lay for years, we are told, in the drawer of a publisher in Bath, who was glad to sell it back to the author for the sum she originally got for it. This, however, was before it became known that Miss Austen was an author and had already published some successful books. The order in the publication of her novels, though not the order in which they were written, is as follows: "Sense and Sensibility" appeared in 1811; "Pride and Prejudice" in 1813; "Mansfield Park" in 1814; and "Emma" in 1816.

The latter was dedicated by request to the then Prince Regent. "Northanger Abbey" and "Persuasion" appeared in the author's own name in 1818, the year after her death. The latter event occurred in her forty-second year, at Winchester, where the novelist was staying for medical treatment, and there in a vault in the Cathedral Jane Austen was buried. This is all there is to the tender and smooth-flowing story. "This, meagre as it is," writes Mr. Goldwin Smith at the close of the biographical chapter, "is pretty much the sum of what we know about the woman. The artist can only be presented by giving an account of her works."

Then follows in seven delightful and entertaining chapters the account referred to. The summary is at once clear and comprehensive. The plot of each novel is unfolded, the characters are outlined and appraised, the play and movements of the story are traced, its art is weighed, and a critical estimate is given of its merits. All this is done in no perfunctory mood, but with a heartiness, as well as skill, which attests the biographer's sympathetic interest in his work. By his help we live again through our own enjoyment of the novels. We see once more their old-time setting, and come anew under the thrall of the author's art. We renew our acquaintance with the well-known characters; we feel our hearts stirred at the troubles that befall them, and our spirits rise with those that triumph. We laugh, too, at those who used to amuse us.

Limited as is the sphere of Jane Austen's novels, there is perfection within it. Her biographer likens her art to that of the miniature portrait-painter, so fine is her literary instinct and so flawless her execution. Very delightful is the atmosphere which each book exhales, and tranquil, as a rule, is the life history which each relates. It is a life that is to-day still lived in many of the rural districts of Old England. The features of the landscape remain much the same, though society and the occupations of society are in many respects different. There are still the ample parks, with the great elm trees rocking in the wind, and the same trim, old-fashioned gardens, with the modest flowers and sloping terrace of green turf. There, too, may yet be seen the grey manor-house, the old parsonage and ivy-walled church. It is pleasant, in our hurrying modern life, to retire with Jane Austen to those quiet, old-time days which are reflected in her works. The age which she describes we feel is long past, but it is an age in which we might well wish to live.

"It belongs," observes Mr. Goldwin Smith, "to the early part of the century, and anterior to the rush of discovery and development which the century has brought with it. There are no railroads, and no lucifer matches. It takes you two days and a half, even when you are flying on the wings of love or remorse, to get from Somersetshire to London. A young lady who has snuffed her candle out has to go to bed in the dark. The watchman calls the hours of the night. Magnates go about in chariots and four with out-riders, their coachmen wearing wigs. People dine at five, and instead of spending the evening in brilliant conversation as we do, they spend it in an unintellectual rubber of whist, or a round game. Life is unelectric, untelegraphic; it is spent more quietly, and it is spent at home. If you are capable of enjoying tranquillity, at least by way of occasional contrast to the stir and stress of the present age, you will find in these tales the tranquillity of a rural neighborhood and a little country town in England a century ago."

Jane Austen's view of life was manifestly kindly and bright. This, doubtless, she inherited with her sweet and frank disposition, and there was little, so far as we know, in her own experience of the world to sour her or try her temper. Satirical at times she was, but she alternated her satire with humor. There was little poetry in her nature, but on the contrary a certain hardness of character, which is reflected in her practical philosophy. The age, however, was worldly and ambitious, and in this respect she is herself a transcript of her age. The nearest she comes to the emotional is in a certain pensiveness with which, during her death illness, her last book is written. Yet, withal, Jane Austen is loving and gentle, and if she has little sentiment we can afford to excuse a novelist who spares us the gushing.

In summing up her work, Mr. Goldwin Smith not only shows us the limits of her genius, but the comparatively trivial and commonplace subjects with which she deals. Trivial and commonplace as they are, her genius, he affirms, however, has made them bright forever.

"In doing justice," says her brilliant biographer, "to Jane Austen, and recommending her in preference to the unwholesome products of sensationalism and the careless manufactures of literary hacks, we do not mean to take a leaf

from the crown of those who have dealt with nobler and more entrancing themes. The subjects which presented themselves to her were of the kind with which, and with which alone, she was singularly qualified by her peculiar temperament, as well as by her special gifts and her social circumstances, to deal. But the lives of these genteel idlers after all were necessarily somewhat vapid, and void of anything heroic in action or feeling as well as of violent passion or tragic crime. Few sets of people, perhaps, ever did less for humanity or exercised less influence on its progress than the denizens of Mansfield Park and Pemberley, Longbourn and Hartfield, in Jane Austen's day. As they all come before us at the fall of the curtain we feel that they, their lives and loves, their little intrigues, their petty quarrels and their drawing-room adventures are the lightest of bubbles on the great stream of existence, though it is a bubble which has been made bright forever by the genius of Jane Austen." G. M. A.

GENERAL MILES ON THE EUROPEAN ARMIES

GENERAL NELSON A. MILES, the commander of our army, has just returned from Europe, whither he had gone to watch operations in the field in the recent Græco-Turkish War, and at the bidding of Government to undertake a tour of military observation in other countries on the European continent. The General, it seems, arrived too late to see much actively of the war, for when he reached Constantinople an armistice had been proclaimed, and diplomacy had entered upon its prolonged conference anent the terms of peace. Other events happening in Europe gave General Miles the opportunity to continue and to profit by his visit of inspection. In his tour, he tells an interviewer, he saw under favorable conditions the flower of the armies of all the Great Powers. He saw, he relates, 50,000 of the English army and 38,000 of the navy brought together to take part in the sixty-years' jubilee celebration of Queen Victoria, was presented to Her Majesty, and met personally the Czar of Russia, the Emperor of Germany, the Sultan of Turkey, and President Faure of France. He was present at the French manœuvres of the year at St. Quentin, where he saw 70,000 men under arms reviewed by the President, and witnessed a charge *en masse* across the field of the entire body of cavalry, 10,000 strong. The French army, General Miles affirms, is not spectacular, as is popularly supposed.

Germany the commander of our arms found one vast military camp, and the display at Homburg, on the occasion of the military manœuvres, was imposing. The German army, he states, is kept under rigid discipline, is well drilled, makes the finest appearance on parade, but its fighting qualities, of which, we believe, he has seen little or nothing, he thinks, are not superior to those of the English, Russian, or French soldiery. Simulated war in camp manœuvres, though a pretty spectacle, and useful, as it accustoms officers to command large bodies of troops and teaches the latter to move well together, he deems an altogether different thing to actual strife in war-time. "The massing of men looked very grand, but there is no school of war except war. The difference between blank cartridges and leaden bullets and shotted cannon is as marked as that between the spectacular scenes of the drama and the real living issues of life. What might seem to be practicable in manœuvres might be wholly impracticable in a condition of actual hostilities."

Besides his visits to thronged camps, General Miles was able to inspect much of varied military interest, including fortifications, ordnance works, barracks, etc. The result of the tour, we learn, is to be embodied in three reports to the Government at Washington, which can hardly fail to be of importance as showing the character and extent of present-day militarism in Europe. "What I have seen," General Miles concludes by saying, "does not indicate that the millennium is at hand, when swords will be beaten into ploughshares. There never was a time in the history of the world when such energy, ingenuity and wealth have been devoted to war purposes. The resources and industries of many people are largely devoted to maintaining large standing armies and formidable navies. Fortunate are the people of the United States that they are walled in by two great oceans; yet this fact would not warrant them in any policy other than keeping a reasonable percentage of the population fully equipped and instructed in modern appliances and methods of war." G. M. A.

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THE STORY OF HUMAN PROGRESS:

THE ANTIQUITY OF MAN—AN INAUGURAL ADDRESS

BY SIR JOHN EVANS, PRESIDENT OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION*

IN bringing under review the state of our present knowledge with regard to the antiquity of man, probably no fitter place could be found for the discussion of such a topic than the adopted home of my venerated friend, the late Sir Daniel Wilson (President of Toronto University), who first introduced the word "prehistoric" into the English language. Some among us may be able to call to mind the excitement not only among men of science but among the general public, when, in 1859, the discoveries of M. Boucher de Perthes† and Dr. Rigollot in the gravels of the valley of the Somme, at Abbeville and Amiens, were confirmed by the investigations of the late Sir Joseph Prestwich, myself and others, and the co-existence of man with the extinct animals of the quaternary fauna, such as the mammoth and woolly-haired rhinoceros, was first virtually established. It was at the same time pointed out that these relics belonged to a far earlier date than the ordinary stone weapons found upon the surface, which usually showed signs of grinding or polishing, and that in fact there were two stone ages in Britain. To these the terms neolithic and palæolithic were subsequently applied by Sir John Lubbock.

Early Relics of the Race

The excitement was not less, when, at the meeting of this Association at Aberdeen in the autumn of that year, Sir Charles Lyell, in the presence of the Prince Consort, called attention to the discoveries in the valley of the Somme, the site of which he had himself visited, and to the vast lapse of time indicated by the position of the implements in drift-deposits a hundred feet above the existing river. The conclusions forced upon those who examined the facts on the spot did not receive immediate acceptance by all who were interested in geology and archæology, and fierce were the controversies on the subject that were carried on both in the newspapers and before various learned societies.

It is at the same time instructive and amusing to look back on the discussions of those days. While one class of objectors accounted for the configuration of the flint implements from the gravels by some unknown chemical agency, by the violent and continued gyratory action of water, by fracture resulting from pressure from rapid cooling when hot or by rapid heating when cold, or even regarded them as aberrant forms of fossil fishes, there were others who, when compelled to acknowledge that the implements were the work of men's hands, attempted to impugn and set aside the evidence as to the circumstances under which they had been discovered. In doing this they adopted the view that the worked flints had either been introduced into the containing beds at a comparatively recent date, or, if they actually formed constituent parts of the gravel, then that this was a mere modern alluvium resulting from floods at no very remote period.

Sir Charles Lyell Quoted

In the course of a few years the main stream of scientific thought left this controversy behind, though a tendency to cut down the lapse of time necessary for all the changes that have taken place in the configuration of the surface of the earth and in the character of its occupants since the time of the Palæolithic gravels still survives in the inmost recesses of the hearts of not a few observers. In his able address to this Association at the Bath meeting of 1864, Sir Charles Lyell struck

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*The distinguished author of this article, Sir John Evans, K. C. B., D. C. L., is the successor of Lord Lister in the Presidency of the British Science Association, before which, at its meeting in Toronto, the paper was read. Its author is an eminent archæologist; and has published several works of note on "The Ancient Stone and Bronze Implements" of Great Britain. He has successively been President of the Geological Society, the Anthropological Institute, the Society of Antiquarians, and the Mumismatic Society of Britain. His antiquarian and numismatic collections are believed to be the finest in England. Sir John Evans is also the author of a work on "The Coins of the Ancient Britons."

†See article on Anthropology, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. II., p. 115.

so true a note that I am tempted to reproduce the paragraph to which I refer :—

"When speculations on the long series of events which occurred in the glacial and post-glacial periods are indulged in, the imagination is apt to take alarm at the immensity of the time required to interpret the monuments of these ages, all referable to the era of existing species. In order to abridge the number of centuries which would otherwise be indispensable, a disposition is shown by many to magnify the rate of change in prehistoric times by investing the causes which have modified the animate and inanimate world with extraordinary and excessive energy. It is related of a great Irish orator of our day that when he was about to contribute somewhat parsimoniously toward a public charity he was persuaded by a friend to make a more liberal donation. In doing so he apologized for his first apparent want of generosity by saying that his early life had been a constant struggle with scanty means, and that 'they who are born to affluence cannot easily imagine how long a time it takes to get the chill of poverty out of one's bones.' In like manner we of the living generation, when called upon to make grants of thousands of centuries in order to explain the events of what is called the modern period, shrink naturally at first from making what seems so lavish an expenditure of past time. Throughout our early education we have been accustomed to such strict economy in all that relates to the chronology of the earth and its inhabitants in remote ages, so fettered have we been by old traditional beliefs, that even when our reason is convinced, and we are persuaded that we ought to make more liberal grants of time to the geologist, we feel how hard it is to get the chill of poverty out of our bones."

The Cradle of the Race

Many, however, have at the present day got over this feeling, and of late years the general tendency of those engaged upon the question of the antiquity of the human race has been in the direction of seeking for evidence by which the existence of man upon the earth could be carried back to a date earlier than that of the quaternary gravels. There is little doubt that such evidence will eventually be forthcoming, but, judging from all probability, it is not in northern Europe that the cradle of the human race will eventually be discovered, but in some part of the world more favored by a tropical climate, where abundant means of subsistence could be procured and where the necessity for warm clothing did not exist. Before entering into speculations on this subject, or attempting to lay down the limits within which we may safely accept recent discoveries as firmly established, it will be well to glance at some of the cases in which implements are stated to have been found under circumstances which raise a presumption of the existence of man in pre-glacial pliocene, or even miocene times. Flint implements of ordinary palæolithic type have, for instance, been recorded as found in the eastern counties of England in beds beneath the chalky boulder clay, but on careful examination the geological evidence has not to my mind proved satisfactory, nor has it, I believe, been generally accepted.

Early Traces of Man

Moreover, the archæological difficulty that man, at two such remote epochs as the pre-glacial and the post-glacial, even if the term glacial be limited to the chalky boulder clay, should have manufactured implements so identical in character that they cannot be distinguished apart seems to have been entirely ignored. Within the last few months we have had the report of worked flints having been discovered in the late pliocene forest bed of Norfolk, but in that instance the signs of human workmanship upon the flints are by no means apparent to all observers. But such an antiquity as that of the forest-bed is as nothing when compared with that which would be implied by the discoveries of the work of men's hands in the pliocene and miocene beds of England, France, Italy, and Portugal, which have been accepted by some geologists. There is one feature in these cases which has hardly received due attention, and that is the isolated character of the reputed discoveries. Had man, for instance, been present in Britain during the crag period, it would be strange, indeed, if the sole traces of his existence that he left were a perforated tooth of a large shark, the sawn rib of a manatee, and a beaming full face carved on the shell of a pectunculus!

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In an address to the anthropological section of the Leeds meeting of this Association in 1890, I dwelt somewhat fully with these supposed discoveries of the remains of human art in beds of tertiary date; and I need not here go further into the question. Suffice it to say that I see no reason why the verdict of "not proven" at which I then arrived should be reversed. In the case of a more recent discovery in Upper Burma in beds at first pronounced to be upper miocene, but subsequently "definitely ascertained to be pliocene," some of the flints are of purely natural and not artificial origin, so that two questions arise: First, Were the fossil remains associated with the worked flints or with those of natural forms? and, second, Were they actually found in the bed to which they have been assigned, or did they merely lie together on the surface? Even the "pithecanthropus erectus" of Dr. Eugene Dubois from Java meets with some incredulous objectors from both the physiological and the geological sides. From the point of view of the latter the difficulty lies in determining the exact age of what are apparently alluvial beds in the bottom of a river valley.

The Palæolithic Period

When we return to palæolithic man, it is satisfactory to feel that we are treading on comparatively secure ground, and that the discoveries of the last forty years in Britain alone enable us to a great extent to reconstitute his history. We may not know the exact geological period when first he settled in the British area, but we have good evidence that he occupied it at a time when the configuration of the surface was entirely different from what it is at present; when the river valleys had not been cut down to anything like their existing depth, when the fauna of the country was of a totally different character from that of the present day, when the extension of the southern part of the island seaward was in places such that the land was continuous with that of the continent, and when in all probability a far more rainy climate prevailed. We have proofs of the occupation of the country by man during the long lapse of time that was necessary for the excavation of the river valleys. We have found the old floors on which his habitations were fixed, we have been able to trace him at work on the manufacture of flint instuments, and by building up the one upon the other the flakes struck off by the primeval workmen in those remote times we have been able to reconstruct the blocks of flint which served as his material. That the duration of the palæolithic period must have extended over an almost incredible length of time is sufficiently proved by the fact that valleys, some miles in width and of a depth of from 100 to 150 feet, have been eroded since the deposit of the earliest implement-bearing beds. Nor is the apparent duration of this period diminished by the consideration that the floods which hollowed out the valleys were not in all probability of such frequent occurrence as to teach the palæolithic man by experience the danger of settling too near to the streams, for had he kept to the higher slopes of the valley there would have been but little chance of his implements having so constantly formed constituent parts of the gravels deposited by the floods.

The Cave-Deposits

The examination of British cave-deposits affords corroborative evidence of this extended duration of the palæolithic period. In Kent's Cavern at Torquay, for instance, we find in the lowest deposit the breccia below the red cave-earth, implements of flint and chert corresponding in all respects with those of the high level and most ancient river gravels. In the cave-earth these are scarcer, though implements occur which also have their analogues in the river deposits; but, what is more remarkable, harpoons of reindeer's horn and needles of bone are present, identical in form and character with those of the caverns of the reindeer period in the south of France, and suggestive of some bond of union or identity of descent between the early troglodytes, whose habitations were geographically so widely separated the one from the other.

In a cavern at Creswell Crags, on the confines of Derbyshire and Nottingham, a bone has moreover been found engraved with a representation of parts of a horse in precisely the same style as the engraved bones of the French caves. It is uncertain whether any of the river-drift specimens belong to so late a date as these artistic cavern-remains; but the

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greatly superior antiquity of even these to any neolithic relics is testified by the thick layer of stalagmite, which had been deposited in Kent's Cavern before its occupation by men of the neolithic and bronze periods.

Towards the close of the period covered by the human occupation of the French caves there seems to have been a dwindling in the number of the larger animals constituting the quaternary fauna, whereas their remains are present in abundance in the lower and, therefore, more recent of the valley gravels. This circumstance may afford an argument in favor of regarding the period represented by the later French caves as a continuation of that during which the old river gravels were deposited, and yet the great change in the fauna that has taken place since the latest of the cave-deposits included in the palæolithic period is indicative of an immense lapse of time.

How much greater must have been the time required for the more conspicuous change between the old quaternary fauna of the river gravels and that characteristic of the neolithic period!

The Neolithic Period

As has been pointed out by Prof. Boyd Dawkins, only 31 out of 48 well-ascertained species living in the post-glacial or river-drift period survived into pre-historic or neolithic times. We have not, indeed, any means at command for estimating the number of centuries which such an important change indicates; but when we remember that the date of the commencement of the neolithic or surface stone period is still shrouded in the mist of a dim antiquity, and that prior to that commencement the river-drift period had long come to an end; and when we further take into account the almost inconceivable ages that even under the most favorable conditions the excavation of wide and deep valleys by river action implies, the remoteness of the date at which the palæolithic period had its beginning almost transcends our powers of imagination.

We find distinct traces of river action from 100 to 200 feet above the level of existing streams and rivers, and sometimes at a great distance from them; we observe old fresh-water deposits on the slopes of valleys several miles in width; we find that long and lofty escarpments of rock have receded unknown distances since their summits were first occupied by palæolithic man; we see that the whole side of a wide river valley has been carried away by an invasion of the sea, which attacked and removed a barrier of chalk cliffs from 400 to 600 feet in height; we find that what was formerly an inland river has been widened out into an arm of the sea, now the highway of our fleets, and that gravels which were originally deposited in the bed of some ancient river now cap isolated and lofty hills.

British Remains Geologically Recent

And yet, remote as the date of the first known occupation of Britain by man may be, it belongs to what, geologically speaking, must be regarded as a quite recent period, for we are now in a position to fix with some degree of accuracy its place on the geological scale. Thanks to investigations ably carried out at Hoxne in Suffolk, and at Hitchin in Hertfordshire, by Mr. Clement Reid, under the auspices of this association, and of the Royal Society, we know that the implement-bearing beds of those places undoubtedly belong to a time subsequent to the deposit of the great chalky boulder clay of the eastern counties of England. It is, of course, self evident that this vast deposit, in whatever manner it may have been formed, could not, for centuries after its deposition was complete, have presented a surface inhabitable by man. Moreover, at a distance but little farther north beds exist which also, though at a somewhat later date, were apparently formed under glacial conditions. At Hoxne, the interval between the deposit of the boulder clay and of the implement-bearing beds is distinctly proved to have witnessed at least two noteworthy changes in climate. The beds immediately reposing on the clay are characterized by the presence of alder in abundance, of hazel and yew, as well as by that of numerous flowering plants indicative of a temperate climate very different from that under which the boulder clay itself was formed. Above these beds characterized by temperate plants comes a thick and more recent series of strata, in which leaves of the dwarf arctic willow and birch abound, and which were in all probability deposited under conditions

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like those of the cold regions of Siberia and North America. At a higher level and of more recent date than these—from which they are entirely distinct—are the beds containing palæolithic implements formed in all probability under conditions not essentially different from those of the present day. However this may be, we have now conclusive evidence that the palæolithic implements are, in the eastern counties of England, of a date long posterior to that of the great chalky boulder clay.

Palæolithic Deposits in Britain

It may be said, and said truly, that the implements at Hoxne cannot be shown to belong to the beginning rather than to some later stage of the palæolithic period. The changes, however, that have taken place at Hoxne in the surface configuration of the country prove that the beds containing the implements cannot belong to the close of that period. It must, moreover, be remembered that in what are probably the earliest of the palæolithic deposits of the eastern counties those at the highest level, near Brandon, in Norfolk, where the gravels contain the largest proportion of pebbles derived from glacial beds, some of the implements themselves have been manufactured from materials not native to the spot but brought from a distance, and derived in all probability either from the boulder clay or from some of the beds associated with it.

Our Asiatic Ancestors

We must, however, take a wider view of the whole question, for it must not for a moment be supposed that there are the slightest grounds for believing that the civilization, such as it was, of the palæolithic period originated in the British Isles. We find in other countries implements so identical in form and character with British specimens that they might have been manufactured by the same hands. These occur over large areas in France under similar conditions to those that prevail in England. The same forms have been discovered in the ancient river gravels of Italy, Spain, and Portugal. Some few have been recorded from the north of Africa, and analogous types occur in considerable numbers in the south of that continent. On the banks of the Nile, many hundreds of feet above its present level, implements of the European types have been discovered, while in Somaliland, in an ancient river valley at a great elevation above the sea, Mr. Seton-Karr has collected a large number of implements formed of flint and quartzite which, judging from their form and character, might have been dug out of the drift deposits of the Somme or the Seine, the Thames or the ancient Solent.

In the valley of the Euphrates implements of the same kind have also been found, and again farther east in the lateritic deposits of southern India they have been obtained in considerable numbers. It is not a little remarkable, and is at the same time highly suggestive, that a form of implement almost peculiar to Madras re-appears among implements from the very ancient gravels of the Manzanares at Madrid. In the case of the African discoveries we have as yet no definite palæontological evidence by which to fix their antiquity, but in the Narbada Valley of Western India palæolithic implements of quartzite seem to be associated with a local fauna of pleistocene age, comprising, like that of Europe, the elephant, hippopotamus, ox, and other mammals of species now extinct. A correlation of the two faunas with a view of ascertaining their chronological relations is beset with many difficulties, but there seems reason for accepting this Indian pleistocene fauna as in some degree more ancient than the European.

The Early History of the Human Family

Is this not a case in which the imagination may be fairly invoked in aid of science? May we not from these data attempt in some degree to build up and reconstruct the early history of the human family? There, in Eastern Asia, in a tropical climate, with the means of subsistence readily at hand, may we not picture to ourselves our earliest ancestors gradually developing from a lowly origin, acquiring a taste for hunting, if not indeed being driven to protect themselves from the beasts around them, and evolving the more complicated forms of tools or weapons from the simpler flakes which had previously served them as knives? May we not imagine that, when once the stage of civilization denoted by these palæolithic implements had been reached, the game for the hunter became scarcer,

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and that his life in consequence assumed a more nomadic character? Then, and possibly not till then, may a series of migrations to "fresh woods and pastures new" not unnaturally have ensued, and these following the usual course of "westward towards the setting sun" might eventually lead to a palæolithic population finding its way to the extreme borders of western Europe, where we find such numerous traces of its presence.

Migrations

How long a term of years may be involved in such a migration it is impossible to say, but that such a migration took place the phenomena seem to justify us in believing. It can hardly be supposed that the process that I have shadowed forth was reversed, and that man, having originated in northwestern Europe, in a cold climate where clothing was necessary and food scarce, subsequently migrated eastward to India and southward to the Cape of Good Hope. As yet, our records of discoveries in India and Eastern Asia are but scanty; but it is there that the traces of the cradle of the human race are, in my opinion, to be sought, and possibly future discoveries may place upon a more solid foundation the visionary structure that I have ventured to erect.

It may be thought that my hypothesis does not do justice to what Sir Thomas Browne has so happily termed "that great antiquity, America." I am, however, not here immediately concerned with the important neolithic remains of all kinds with which this great continent abounds. I am now confining myself to the question of palæolithic man and his origin, and in considering it I am not unmindful of the Trenton implements, though I must content myself by saying that the "turtle-back" form is essentially different from the majority of those on the wide dissemination of which I have been speculating, and, moreover, as many here present are aware, the circumstances of the finding of these American implements are still under careful discussion.

Two Remote Periods

Leaving them out of the question for the present, it may be thought worth while to carry our speculation rather further, and to consider the relations in time between the palæolithic and the neolithic periods. We have seen that the stage in human civilization denoted by the use of the ordinary forms of palæolithic implements must have extended over a vast period of time if we have to allow for the migration of the primeval hunters from their original home, wherever it may have been, in Asia or Africa, to the west of Europe, including Britain. We have seen that, during this migration, the forms of the weapons and tools made from silicious stones had become, as it were, stereotyped, and further, that, during the subsequent extended period implied by the erosion of the valleys, the modifications in the form of the implements and the changes in the fauna associated with the men who used them were but slight.

At the close of the period during which the valleys were being eroded comes that represented by the latest occupation of the caves by palæolithic man, when both in Britain and in the south of France the reindeer was abundant, but among the stone weapons and implements of that long troglodytic phase of man's history not a single example with the edge sharpened by grinding has as yet been found. All that can safely be said is that the larger implements as well as the larger mammals had become scarcer, that greater power in chipping flint had been attained, that the arts of the engraver and the sculptor had considerably developed, and that the use of the bow had probably been discovered.

Directly we encounter the relics of the neolithic period, often, in the case of the caves lately mentioned, separated from the earlier remains by a thick layer of underlying stalagmite we find flint hatchets polished at the edge and on the surface, cutting at the broad and not at the narrow end, and other forms of implements associated with a fauna in all essential respects identical with that of the present day.

The Realm of Conjecture

Were the makers of these polished weapons the direct descendants of palæolithic ancestors whose occupation of the country was continuous from the days of the old river gravels, or had these long since died out, so that after Western Europe had for ages remained uninhabited it was re-peopled in neolithic times by the immigration of some new race of men? Was there, in fact, a "great gulf fixed"

between the two occupations, or was there in Europe a gradual transition from the one stage of culture to the other?

It has been said that "what song the sirens sang, or what name Achilles assumed when he hid himself among women, though puzzling questions, are not beyond all conjecture," and though the questions now proposed may come under the same category, and must await the discovery of many more essential facts before they receive definite and satisfactory answers, we may, I think, throw some light upon them if we venture to take a few steps upon the seductive if insecure paths of conjecture. So far as I know, we have as yet no trustworthy evidence of any transition from one age to the other, and the gulf between them remains practically unbridged. We can, indeed, hardly name the part of the world in which to seek for the cradle of neolithic civilization, though we know that traces of what appear to have been a stone-using people have been discovered in Egypt, and that what must be among the latest of the relics of their industry have been assigned to a date some 3,500 to 4,000 years before our era. The men of that time had attained to the highest degree of skill in working flint that has ever been reached. Their beautifully-made knives and spear-heads seem indicative of a culminating point reached after long ages of experience; but whence these artists in flint came or who they were is at present absolutely unknown, and their handiworks afford no clue to help us in tracing their origin.

Taking a wider survey we may say that, generally speaking, not only the fauna but the surface configuration of the country were, in western Europe at all events, much the same at the commencement of the neolithic period as they are at the present day. We have, too, no geological indications to aid us in forming any chronological scale.

The occupation of some of the caves in the south of France seems to have been carried on after the erosion of the neighboring river valleys had ceased, and so far as our knowledge goes these caves offer evidence of being the latest in time of those occupied by man during the palæolithic period. It seems barely possible that, though in the north of Europe there are no distinct signs of such late occupation, yet that in the south man may have lived on, though in diminished numbers; and that in some of the caves, such, for instance, as those in the neighborhood of Mentone, there may be traces of his existence during the transitional period that connects the palæolithic and neolithic ages. If this were really the case we might expect to find some traces of a dissemination of neolithic culture from a north Italian centre, but I much doubt whether any such traces actually exist.

Europe Re-peopled

If it had been in that part of the world that the transition took place, how are we to account for the abundance of polished stone hatchets found in Central India? Did neolithic man return eastward by the same route as that by which in remote ages his palæolithic predecessor had migrated westward? Would it not be in defiance of all probability to answer such a question in the affirmative? We have, it must be confessed, nothing of a substantial character to guide us in these speculations; but, pending the advent of evidence to the contrary, we may, I think, provisionally adopt the view that, owing to failure of food, climatal changes or other causes, the occupation of western Europe by palæolithic man absolutely ceased, and that it was not until after an interval of long duration that Europe was re-peopled by a race of men immigrating from some other part of the globe, where the human race had survived and in course of ages had developed a higher stage of culture than that of palæolithic man. I have been carried away by the liberty allowed for conjecture into the regions of pure imagination and must now return to the realms of fact, and one fact on which I desire for a short time to insist is that of the existence at the present day, in close juxtaposition with our own civilization, of races of men who, at all events but a few generations ago, lived under much the same conditions as did our own neolithic predecessors in Europe.

The manners and customs of these primitive tribes and people are changing day by day, their languages are becoming obsolete, their myths and traditions are dying out, their ancient processes of manufacture are falling into oblivion, and their numbers are rapidly diminish-

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ing, so that it seems inevitable that ere long many of these interesting populations will become absolutely extinct. The admirable Bureau of Ethnology instituted by the United States has done much towards preserving a knowledge of the various native races on this vast continent, and here in Canada the annual archæological reports are rendering good service in the same cause. It is sad to think that Mr. Horatio Hale, whose comprehensive grasp of the bearings of ethnological questions and whose unremitting labors have so materially conduced to the success of the work, should be no longer among us.

PROHIBITION, AND THE LATE NEAL DOW

A REMARKABLE figure has just passed off the stage, in the person of General Neal Dow, the great Prohibition advocate and father of the Maine Liquor Law. If length of years is the reward of abstinence from all intoxicating beverages, then General Dow may be cited as a striking example, for the venerable gentleman, when he died at Portland, Me., on the 2nd ultimo, had reached his ninety-fourth year, and was to the last not only wonderfully well-preserved for his years, but also in the full possession of his mental faculties. He was a man of modest appetites, old-fashioned ways, and simple habits, spending much of his time out of doors, retiring early, and for three-quarters of a century rising in the morning to his work at half past four in summer and at six o'clock in winter. The enthusiasm which from the first impelled him to undertake his crusade against the liquor traffic was no less characteristic of the man than were his physical activity and mental alertness.

His first public appearance as an apostle of temperance was in 1839, when he appealed to the aldermen of his native city to submit to the citizens the license ordinance. Public opinion at this early stage was not educated, however, to his views or tolerant of restraint in the matter of the appetites. "No License" was defeated in Portland, and it was long before public sentiment changed with the change in public habits. He also met with defeat in his petitions to the Legislature of the State until the year 1851, when as mayor of Portland he had power to influence the House on behalf of Prohibition, and had succeeded in creating public sentiment in its favor. The enforcement of the law, when he had obtained it, was no light or agreeable task, for the opposition to it was appalling, and the methods of evasion persistent and ingenious. In 1856 the "Maine Law" was repealed, but on Dow's again rallying the people, it was reënacted in the following year with severer penalties.

At the outbreak of the war, despite his then advancing years, Mr. Dow raised a regiment, the 13th Maine Volunteers, and saw active service at New Orleans, under General Butler, and later on at Ship Island and Pensacola. He was twice wounded and won the rank of brigadier-general. While convalescing, he was captured by the Confederates and made an inmate of Libby Prison, an incarceration which broke down his health and compelled him, when exchanged, to retire from the service. In 1880, it will be remembered, he was nominated for the Presidency by the Prohibition party, but took little interest himself in his candidature. His energies and interest were absorbed in the temperance question, and to its cause he devoted his remaining active years, and with gratifying success. By this time a body of strong opinion was behind him, and intemperance was visibly decreasing. Honor, undoubtedly is due to those who believe in moral crusades and spend themselves in their service; but it is a question how far popular sentiment is really influenced by frenzied declamation and fanatical repression, in a matter of social habits. Experience would seem to point to less aggressive methods, and to the enlightenment which comes from the observance of nature's laws, rather than to repressive acts, which have the taint of sumptuary legislation and drive the tabooed trade into unlicensed, irresponsible, and oftentimes into disreputable hands. The motives which actuated Neal Dow in propagating and enforcing his views were, however, of the highest, and now that he has closed his earthly career, all good men will honor his memory.

G. M. A.

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Every person has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—GIBBON.

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G. MERCER ADAM, EDITOR
HOWARD P. RUGGLES, BUSINESS MANAGER

SPAIN AND THE CUBAN QUESTION

No surprise can well be felt at the crisis which has just arisen in Spain. The Peninsular Government has, of recent years, had a trying time of it with her rebellious Colonies, which she is too proud to let go, and has spent too much blood and treasure in seeking to subdue. Her internal affairs, moreover, are always more or less vexed by having to guard against dynastic conspiracy, while her leaders are constantly being called upon to conciliate parties and allay political jealousies. Frequently, also, there are conflicts between the Church and the Liberal element in the Government, one of which has, with the recent death of Señor Canovas, caused the present upheaval, and led to the excommunication, by one of the episcopate, of the finance minister, with other Cabinet complications. These internal troubles, with an impoverished exchequer, and the seeming hopelessness of subjugating Cuba and pacifying the Philippines, have brought on a ministerial crisis, which, if for the time being it may be bridged over, cannot fail at an early day to be renewed. The complications indeed are such that there can be no hope of stability in the Government, even if the Carlists are quiet, and though the Cabinet may temporarily be patched up, under Sagasta, in harmony with prevailing public sentiment. That the Carlists, whom every upheaval in Spanish politics brings troublesomely on the scene, will abstain from taking advantage of the nation's perplexities, is not at all likely; and still more unlikely is it that the new Premier will succeed in doing anything effectively for Cuba, though his return to power may avert some impending disaster.

Contrary to current belief, we have to be thankful that Señor Sagasta's acceptance of office is not harassed by any impolitic ultimatum or threatening menace from the United States Government, through General Woodford, our new Ambassador at Madrid. What our representative is reported to have said to the Spanish foreign minister would, if true, have sent him out of the country in a hurry. But if the communication with which General Woodford was charged by our Government was not couched in offensive terms, there is little room for doubt that it conveyed to Spain some intimation that the forbearance of this country has been severely tried by the prolonged and, so far, futile efforts to suppress the rebellion in Cuba, and by the ruthless methods of its army chiefs, which were desolating as well as hopelessly alienating the island. What heed Spain will or can give to our temperate admonition, we shall no doubt presently see. Sagasta, who is not wanting in discretion, and, moreover, is a man of progressive and humane ideas, is known to be bitterly hostile to the methods of Spanish rule in Cuba, which have destroyed its productions and industries and dissipated its wealth. His attitude towards the Colony is shown in his instant recall of Captain-General Weyler and the appointment of Marshal Blanco in his stead.

With the granting of autonomy to Cuba, the island naturally is not now likely to be satisfied. After its long struggle and sturdy opposition to the reactionary policy of the motherland, with all it has cost the Colony in blood and treasure, it would be unreasonable to expect it to be solaced by smooth words or by any overtures of peace on a flimsy basis of home rule. Nor can we conceive home rule, were it real, being acceptable to Cuba, with the men and machinery which Spain would insist upon foisting upon the Colony. And yet upon what other basis would Spain, in her foolish pride, consent to the pacification of her subjects in revolt? No Spanish minister would dare propose to abandon the Colony, or offer a measure of home rule which, like that of Canada, would be

tantamount to independence. The alternative pursuance of the war, with the possible intervention of this country, and the prospect of a conflict with the United States as the result, present difficulties to Spanish statesmenship which cannot easily be grappled with. Had Spain the hope of a European ally, the situation would be less grave; but the inhumanity with which she has conducted her operations in Cuba, and the devastation she has wrought in her commerce, are not likely to win her allies in Europe, even among the most monarchical of governments that look askant upon insurgents. What the issue will be, we are still unable to divine. A continuance of the war would now be intolerable; and yet can we, with confidence, look in the near future for a cessation of the long agony of Cuba?

* * *

THE GREEK WAR INDEMNITY

That M. Ralli's administration should be overthrown in submitting the treaty of peace with Turkey to the Greek Legislature, is not unexpected. The treaty was not offered to the Chamber for ratification, for that was unnecessary, as it had been negotiated by the Powers in the interest of the Hellenic kingdom, and with the view of reducing the inordinate demands of Turkey. The fall of the administration came as the result of the Premier's asking for a vote of confidence, showing practical approval of the treaty; but this the House, smarting under the humiliation of national defeat in the war, and exasperated at the cost entailed upon the country by the brief campaign, refused by a vote of 93 to 30. The resignation of the ministry promptly followed, though it was not responsible for the misfortunes that had fallen upon Greece, nor can it be said to have been even an assenting party to the conditions of the treaty.

The indemnity to be paid to the Turk before he will take himself out of Thessaly the Powers have succeeded in reducing from ten to four million dollars; but large as the sum is and difficult as it must be to raise it with an already depleted exchequer, that is not the whole ground of Greek anger and chagrin. The rock of offence is the condition imposed by the European Concert, that the finances of the kingdom shall be controlled by a delegation of the Powers until not only the war indemnity shall have been paid, but until the foreign creditors of the nation, chiefly German bondholders, whose claims have been practically repudiated by Greece, shall be honorably satisfied. That is the sore point with the Greeks, and the cause of much resentment and indignation at Athens and throughout the kingdom.

A further grievance is the altered line of frontier, which by the terms of the treaty gives Turkey every advantage of strategic position in Thessaly, coupled with the retention of the territory until the war indemnity is either paid or secured. The attitude of Greece towards the Powers is extremely foolish, when we consider what the nation owes to the representative ambassadors who have toiled so long at Constantinople on her behalf. What more reasonably may rouse Greek ire is the extension of international control to the debts Greece owed her old creditors; but this was a matter pressed upon the Powers by Germany and can hardly be objected to by a nation jealous of its financial reputation and actuated by honorable impulse. The hardships of the position are of Greece's own making, and if one regrets, in the interest of a Christian nation, the issue of the struggle, and the turn affairs have taken, one can hardly be sorry that Greek vanity and foolhardiness have had a sharp and wholesome lesson. We could wish that this was the end of the whole affair; but the end cannot come until Cretan autonomy is more definitely arranged for, and the Turk is made to evacuate Christian Thessaly.

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GREATER NEW YORK, AND ITS CIVIC ADMINISTRATION

Greater New York inaugurates the extension of its municipal area by a ferment of party activity over the mayoralty election, there being half-a-dozen or more candidates in the field, each with his cohort of aspirants for the other civic offices. Interest in the campaign has become almost national in its reach and intensity, owing to the fact that an influential independent movement has been launched afresh in New York, with the design of electing a mayor by an organization other than that of the Boss and the Machine. This non-party organization, known as

the "Citizens' Union," has for its candidate Mr. Seth Low, President of Columbia University, a better man than whom the friends of good government in the commercial metropolis of the nation could hardly have pitched upon. Another good man, though wearing the badge of party, is the Republican candidate, General B. F. Tracy, Secretary of the Navy in Harrison's administration. The Democrats have for their Tammany representative Judge R. A. Van Wyck; while the Silver Democrats are "running" Mr. Henry George, of "Single Tax" fame.

In so keen a contest, with such a varied candidacy, the clash of conflicting interests at present in consolidated New York may be conceived, though at a distance can hardly be adequately estimated. Sharpness is given to the contest by the bringing forward of a non-party nominee, and the consequent challenge of a system of election which has brought many and great evils in its train, and from which municipal administration, it is properly deemed, ought wholly to be free. Mr. Low's candidature has the support of a mass of the most worthy and influential citizens, who see in him an honest, broad-minded, efficient and business-like administrator of a college, the type of a mayor which a great city needs — who, though a good Republican, is unfettered by party allegiance, is the creature of no Boss, caucus or convention, but is free to administer the city's affairs, and use the great patronage with which the mayor's office is entrusted, with a single eye for the city's good.

The appearance actively in the field of a candidate of Mr. Low's high character and record, who comes forward, not as the nominee of a class organization or party, but as the representative of every honest and independent citizen, is a venture almost chivalric in its character. To his candidacy all must wish well who seek that crying need of the time — good and honest civic government. The consequences of the evil methods hitherto prevailing in nominations to public office are such that no good citizen can afford to be indifferent to Mr. Low's success at the polls. Whatever the issue of the contest, Mr. Low's entering the breach must add interest to the struggle, which we hope will go on, between the Machine and Independence, and thus encourage the hearts of those who seek to purge the administration of our cities and towns of all that is immoral, wasteful and corrupt.

* * *

THANKSGIVING

For now more than a generation has Thanksgiving been a national institution throughout this country, while as a religious festival it dates back over two and three quarter centuries — to its first celebration by the Pilgrim Fathers of New England. In the early days of the planting of Church and commonwealth on this continent, when a sterile soil began to yield its bounties to the often famished settler, it is pleasant to recall that the little community took delight in giving public expression to the spirit of thanksgiving, which has now grown into a mighty custom over the entire Republic, after the annual harvesting of the fruits of the earth. From its antiquity among our people, as well as from its general significance, there is no religious tradition more interesting, or that ought to be dearer to the heart of the people, than that of giving thanks, on a day especially set apart by the head of the nation, for public blessings and for nature's bountiful gifts vouchsafed to it. It is, moreover, the day on which we are accustomed as a people to draw together in family reunions, which keep well knit the bonds of kinship and atune hearts, often sundered by discord, to the universal note of harmony and common rejoicing.

The occasion, so fraught with pleasant memories to the present generation, was long in settling down to its now fixed season of celebration, and though it comes close to the Christmas festival, some of the happiest features of which Thanksgiving Day has appropriated, it already has traditions which hallow it to the nation and to all classes and conditions of the people. The present year, it is hardly necessary to remind the reader, furnishes, by its large measure of peace and plenty, enjoyed by every section of the nation, abundant reason for national thanksgiving. In the joy of the coming festival, the grateful heart will therefore not be unmindful of the benign Source from which, as the familiar Doxology reminds us, "all blessings flow."

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THE LONDON "SPECTATOR," AND ITS LATE EDITOR

The literature of the higher journalism, since we last went to press, has in England suffered a well-nigh irreparable loss in the death of Richard Holt Hutton, for nearly forty years editor of the London "Spectator." Under this preëminently able and philosophic journalist, the "Spectator" long since attained to the highest rank among the organs of literary, political and religious thought in England; and the periodical, as most writers for the press on both sides of the Atlantic will admit, was an inspiration, as well as a model of thoughtful, learned, and sagacious journalism, striking the happy mean in English politics between ultra-Liberalism and reactionary and jingo Toryism. It had none of the cynical smartness of its contemporary, the "Saturday Review," and never stooped to pepper its pages with "pungent condiments" or with the acrid effusions of splenetic, ill-mannered critics. It was always calm, restrained, dignified. Its most marked characteristic, aside from its ability and the philosophic judgment to which it gave expression in treating topics of the time, was its earnest moral tone and the high ethical standard by which it tested current thought, whether on its religious, scientific or literary side. On American matters it was always fair-minded and sympathetic; and patriotic, though just, on European topics in which England was vitally interested.

In religion, Mr. Hutton was originally a Unitarian, but many years ago he became a member of the Anglican Church, of the school of F. Denison Maurice, and in his philosophy was a disciple of Dr. James Martineau. In his journal as well as in his separate writings he was one of the most notable religious teachers of his generation, while his influence in literature was equally marked. Such was the modesty of the man, that, at his death, Hutton enjoined upon his friends and colleagues that no memoir or even obituary notice of him should appear. As a power for good, few men, practically little known to the world, have more beneficently influenced the thought of his time, and no journalist more effectively than he has set before his audience a higher example of other-worldliness in union with the secular gifts that fitted him for his high place. His chief writings are a "Life of Sir Walter Scott," in Morley's "English Men of Letters Series" (1878), "Essays, Theological and Literary" (1871), and "Essays on Some Modern Guides of English Thought in Matters of Faith."

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WEALTH AND ITS ARRAIGNMENT

The Hon. Lyman J. Gage, Secretary of the Treasury, recently delivered a remarkable address at the dedication in Peoria, Ill., of a Polytechnic Institute, the munificent gift of a Mrs. L. Bradley, of that city. The subject of his remarks was the pessimism of the time, which sees a giant evil in associated capital and the accumulation of vast wealth in few hands, forgetting not only that labor's share has meanwhile gone on increasing, but that capital "must do service or it dies," and is itself governed by a law which exacts from it that which is demanded from useful and conscientious labor. Mr. Gage sees in not a little of the present-day arraignment of capital much that is not sane but hysterical, and affirms that it is untrue to facts, broadly speaking, to say that in our material progress the just rights of the many are being sacrificed to the unfair advantage of the few. If this and the other hard things that are said of capital were true, Mr. Gage premises that the social system would not hold together, that a climax would be reached, and that speedily. His main argument is that we do not take just account of things, that we are dazzled by the vast modern accumulation of wealth and appalled at the magnitude of the operations, whether in corporate or in individual hands, in which it is engaged.

"It must, however, be admitted," Mr. Gage frankly says, "that many things open to common observation seem to justify the popular opinion now so prevalent. Never before were fortunes of such magnitude brought under the control of limited groups of men. Never before were corporate agencies created and endowed with such enormous capital. Never before were enterprises in commerce, in manufacturing, in transportation, of such magnitude put into operation to affect, for good or ill, the happiness and welfare of society. Realizing the enormous power thus exercised, the imagination becomes affected. We become afraid. We grow hysterical."

Speaking of the so-called aggressions of capital, the speaker added that:—

"The new and unfamiliar forms in which we see it coördinated alarm us. We see its power; we forget the law of its life. And yet it is held out to us that capital is tyrannical and oppressive, that it ought to be feared, restrained, legis-

lated against. The contrary is the truth. Capital is timid. It has passed into an adage, that there is only one bigger coward than $1,000,000, and that is twice as big a coward, namely, $2,000,000. Do we need evidence of this fact? The history of the last four years is sufficient. Intimidated by the menace of a change in the standard by which capital is expressed and counted, it sought safety in retreat and hiding. Reassured in the present, it now seeks every avenue for safe and profitable employment."

To strengthen his position, Mr. Gage then dealt with the question, "If capital is innocuous, is it dangerous to the State for any considerable portion of it to fall under the control of one man?" His reply was that what may be regarded as a dangerous portion is measured by varying standards, as well as by a consideration of the purposes and uses to which great wealth is put. Both points he illustrated by instructive examples, and showed that the world's progress and its advance in civilization were due to the possession of wealth, acquired by invention, industry, and thrift, and that even its concentration in few hands had done much for the happiness, comfort, and welfare of the race, while no mean share of it had accrued to labor. The address throughout was fresh and thoughtful, and its tone was high and its spirit excellent. These characteristics were specially manifested in the parts of the address which dealt with the moral aspects of wealth-getting. Here are Mr. Gage's closing words:—

"While honorable wealth can be acquired only by giving service of equal or greater value to society, in too many instances wealth, great wealth, is acquired where the service rendered in return is very inadequate, where foresightedness and ability, perceiving the enormous value of natural opportunities in municipal privileges, such as water, gas, or street railways, make thriftful bargains with corrupt or ignorant representatives of the people to take up and monopolize to their own aggrandizement the rights which inhere in all of the people.

The service which ought to be rendered in the acquisition of wealth is wholly lacking when it is secured by sharp and inequitable practices."

THE TURBULENT INDIAN TRIBESMEN

England's task in suppressing the turbulent tribesmen on the Northwest frontiers of India, has been both a serious and a costly one. The fanatical hillsmen have fought well, and since we last dealt with the subject there have been many engagements with the enemy, much hard and often hand-to-hand fighting, entailing serious loss of life, with the fall and recovery of at least one British post (Saraghari), the shelling of numberless Indian villages, and the driving of their fierce occupants into the hills. Expeditionary forces have also scoured the region in many hazardous directions, and have succeeded in dispersing some tribes, such as the Oraksais and the Afridis, and severely punishing others. Among the latter those who have suffered most are the Mohmands, against whom the new commander-in-chief, Sir William Lockhart, is about to proceed, with forces, native and regular, at his command, numbering close upon 60,000 men.

The converging movement upon the Mohmands, who maintain their hostile and refractory mood, will, in all probability bring the disaffected mountaineers to their senses, and so end the present outbreak. There is yet a likelihood of there being much work to do, as the Mohmand fastnesses are difficult to penetrate, and the tribe is perhaps the most formidable as well as troublesome of native bordersmen. Disaffection among these hill clans, as experience afresh proves, cannot be stamped out by half measures, and so the punitive expeditions will likely have much work to do before they awe revolt, and disarm and disperse the tribesmen. The gravity of the situation is probably past, and should this be the case the attention of the Indian and the Home Governments will then no doubt turn to the consideration of the steps to be taken to prevent a repetition of the rising. What the policy will be, it is difficult as yet to foresee. At best, it must be a complicated and grave problem. England will, of course, feel that she must not only reassert her prestige and authority, for the safety of her Eastern Empire, but must visit such chastisement upon the rebellious tribes as will deter them, for the future, from defying or even menacing her power. She must also recover control of the Khyber Pass and keep open and maintain safe communication with Cabul and Central Asia. Beyond this she may not go, and the end is likely to come to all extensions of British sovereignty in the region of the independent tribes, if there may not be withdrawal from Chitral, and the abandonment of the hill posts held by the frontier force and the local levies.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Friday, September 10.—The Agricultural Department will make arrangements for the introduction of the camphor tree in Florida....At least thirty persons were killed in a collision of trains of the Denver and Rio Grande and the Colorado Midland railroads near New Castle, Col.; the injured numbered 185....The Afridis are collecting in the Bazan Valley, intending to attack Bara and Jamrud ...It is announced that peace has been concluded between the Government of Uruguay and the Uruguayan insurgents ....The fall of Victoria De Las Tunis, Cuba, caused great excitement in Madrid....The financial situation at Johannesburg, Transvaal Republic, is critical.

Saturday, September 11.—Twenty-one dead and forty wounded, several of whom are likely to die, is the record of the firing by deputy sheriffs on the strikers at Latimer, Pa.; Governor Hastings issued a proclamation commanding all rioters to disperse....The Republican campaign in Ohio was opened with three meetings; Senators Foraker and Hanna spoke in Burton....The Columbus miners' convention finally accepted the proposal of the Pittsburg operators for the settlement of the coal strike in western Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, and Indiana; the 65-cent rate was accepted.

Sunday, September 12.—The board of yellow fever experts in New Orleans diagnosed seven suspicious cases in that city as that disease....The Lehigh and Wilkesbarre coal company has offered to grant an increase of 10 per cent. over the Lehigh basis to the 2,000 miners employed; the men accepted....Emperor William of Germany arrived at Totis, Hungary, and was cordially welcomed by Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary....It is reported in Madrid that the Carlists are watching to take advantage of the Spanish Government's embarrassment over Cuba.

Monday, September 13.—President McKinley returned to Washington....General Stewart L. Woodford, the new United States minister to Spain, presented his credentials to the queen regent at San Sebastian....A force of one thousand Orakzais captured the Saraghari police post, which was gallantly defended by twenty-one Sikhs....Both chambers of the Uruguayan congress have ratified the terms of peace made with the insurgents.

Tuesday, September 14.—Dr. Benjamin Andrews has withdrawn his resignation as president of Brown University....The minister of finance of Argentina has sent to Congress a draft of the tariff against the United States; it will increase the duty 50 per cent. on those products not now on the free list, and 15 per cent. on those which are on the free list.

Wednesday, September 15.—The navy department will recommend to Congress that appropriations be made for the construction of at least four new dry docks....Ex-Postmaster-General W. L. Wilson was installed as president of Washington and Lee University, at Lexington, Virginia ... The troops on the Northwestern frontier of British India under General Yeatman-Biggs have relieved the Samana posts; the police post at Saraghari has been recaptured; the enemy at Fort Gulistan were scattered by the field guns at a range of 3,000 yards....Spain is preparing to send 6,000 more troops to Cuba ...The State Department has been informed by our Consul at Athens that, as a result of the Turkish occupation of Thessaly, there are now over 100,000 Thessalian refugees scattered through Greece, mostly in a condition of destitution.

Thursday, September 16.—The Government of Nicaragua will consider a project for the construction of an inter-oceanic railroad in that country....Two hundred women, armed with clubs and pokers, forced three hundred men in the McAdoo and Audenreid mines, near Hazleton, to quit work....A large number of miners who were on strike in the Pittsburg and Illinois districts returned to work....At the semi-annual meeting of the Bank of England the governor announced that the bank is prepared to hold in silver one-fifth of the bullion held against its note issue....The Chinese near Yaoping have been persecuting the Christians, burning their houses, destroying their crops, and putting converts to the torture....The report of Dr. Mendez Capote's election as president of the Cuban Republic is officially confirmed.

Friday, September 17.—The one-cent postage stamp will be colored green after January 1, 1899, and the five-cent stamp will be a dark blue; these changes were agreed upon at the Postal Congress....The Internal Revenue collections for August amounted to $11,465,168.... Commissioner of Pensions Evans says it will probably be necessary to ask Congress for a deficiency appropriation on account of pensions ....The election of Señor Andrade as President of Venezuela is almost unanimous....The inhabitants of a village in Arctic Russia are reported to have seen a balloon, believed to be that of Professor Andrée, on the night of September 14....Severe fighting is reported in India, resulting in a reverse for the British.

Saturday, September 18.—Consul-General Lee had a long interview with the President; at the President's request he will return to Havana, probably about the middle of October ....Samuel C. Dunham, statistical expert of the department of labor, writes from Alaska that hundreds of men will starve or freeze to death in the effort to reach the Klondyke gold fields.... The Governor of New Mexico reports that there are 5,000,000 sheep in the territory, that the wool production last year was 11,000,000 pounds, and that 15,000 people are engaged in the industry....The treaty of peace between Greece and Turkey has been signed....There were 326 deaths in Havana for the week ending September 9, fifteen of which, the Spanish authorities said, were due to Yellow Fever.

Sunday, September 19.—The fact that no copy of the British colonial office's reply to Secretary Sherman's seal fisheries note had been sent to Washington aroused comment on the part of State department officials....Ferrouh Bey, of the Turkish embassy at St. Petersburg, has been appointed Turkish Minister to the United States....Severe earthquake shocks have occurred in Turkestan, Asiatic Russia, and

in Switzerland....The depreciation of silver in Spain is causing a rise in the prices of all kinds of food.

Monday, September 20.—A conference of sealing experts is to be held in Washington in October by ex-Secretary John W. Foster ....President McKinley appointed Archibald J. Sampson to be Minister to Ecuador .. The strike in the Hazelton mining region was practically ended, over five thousand men returning to work .. Eighteen new cases of Yellow Fever were reported in New Orleans ... Emperor William arrived at Budapest, and was cordially welcomed by Emperor Francis Joseph and the populace..... Señor Cuestas, who assumed the Presidency of Uruguay on the assassination of Borda, issued a declaration of policy ....A revolution is reported to have broken out in Nicaragua.

Tuesday, September 21—President McKinley and party left Washington for North Adams, Massachusetts....The strike of the anthracite coal miners is practically at an end in Pennsylvania, nearly all the collieries in the Hazelton region being at work....It is stated that a treaty has been concluded between Great Britain and the Mahdi, by which the latter will not oppose the advance of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition as far as Khartoum....Tribesmen attacked the camp of General Sir Bindon Blood; fierce fighting, which lasted five hours, followed....Oscar II, King of Sweden and Norway, is celebrating the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession to the throne.

Wednesday, September 22.—The cruiser *Chicago* will be transformed into a fast modern warship by the expenditure of $300,000.... Sheriff Martin and his deputies were held for trial at Wilkesbarre, Pa., on charges of murdering and "feloniously wounding" the strikers who were shot at Lattimer....There is great indignation in Greece over the peace terms.

Thursday, September 23.—The navy department will increase its representation at Honolulu, the gunboat *Wheeling* having been ordered to proceed there; no apprehension is felt about American interests in the islands.... The silver Democrats of Ohio opened their campaign with meetings in every county of the State....The protest of the bankers of London against the policy of the governor of the Bank of England in regard to silver was presented to the bank....Bedmania Pass, held by Hadda Mullah with a large force of Mohmands and Shinwaris, has been captured by the British; the tribesmen were driven out of every position.

Friday, September 24.—The withdrawal of the State troops at Hazleton, Pa., was begun ....The bubonic plague is again active in India; it is asserted that the withdrawal of the medical officers for service with the troops on the frontier will entail consequences infinitely more disastrous than anything happening on the frontier.

Saturday, September 25.—Several more deaths from Yellow Fever and new cases of the disease were reported at various points in the South.... Ratifications of the new treaty between Japan and Chile were exchanged at Washington.... The treasury department in accordance with Attorney-General McKenna's opinion, instructed customs officials not to collect the discriminating duty....European newspapers continue to comment on the possibility of European intervention in Cuban affairs....A great sensation was caused in London diplomatic circles by the announcement that England would refuse to take part in the Washington sealing conference if Russia and Japan were represented....The rebel tribesmen on the Afghan frontier of India are displaying renewed activity.

Sunday, September 26.—Secretary of the Treasury Gage will discuss currency revision in his annual report; he has pronounced views, which may bring him into conflict with the monetary commission, unless they reach an agreement....Gen. Stewart L. Woodford, United States Minister to Spain, has arrived at Madrid from San Sebastian....General Weyler has asked Spain to send 113 additional administrative officials to Cuba....General Jeffreys has arranged an armistice of two days, to enable the tribesmen to submit, which they appear anxious to do; the headquarters of the Hadda Mullah, in the village of Jarobi, have been demolished; all the fortifications were blown up....Treaty relations have been established between Japan and Chile... Resolutions were adopted at a mass meeting held in Athens, calling upon King George to renew the war with Turkey rather than accept the terms of peace offered.

Monday, September 27.—It was announced that Lord Salisbury has not withdrawn from the Bering Sea conference, but has simply objected to the presence of Russia and Japan; negotiations on the subject are proceeding....It is believed that steps will be taken by the British authorities to negotiate reciprocity treaties under the new tariff law between the United States and British-American colonies....The United Democracy of Greater New York met in convention, reaffirmed the Chicago platform of 1896, and nominated Henry George for mayor ....Emperor William telegraphed his congratulations to Prince Bismarck upon the occasion of the launching of the new cruiser "Fuerst Bismarck" at Kiel....All arrangements for the cession of Kassala to Great Britain have been completed.

Tuesday, September 28.—The Republican convention of the Greater New York was held in Carnegie Hall, when ex-Secretary of the Navy Benjamin F. Tracey was nominated for mayor; the vote was 297 for Tracey, 49 for Low ....The Democratic State convention of Massachusetts nominated a ticket, headed by George Fred Williams for governor, and indorsed the Chicago platform....The first annual conference of mayors and councilmen of the United States, Canada, and Mexico, opened in Columbus, Ohio; Governor Bushnell delivered an address of welcome....The governor-general of Algeria, M. Jules Cambon, will succeed M. Jules Patenôtre as French ambassador at Washington; M. Patenôtre will go to Madrid.

Wednesday, September 29.—The Republican State convention of Massachusetts met in Boston and renominated all the present State officers, with Roger Wolcott for governor....The Spanish cabinet resigned; the Queen Regent accepted the resignations, but asked General

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Azcarraga to continue in office until a solution of the crisis is found....Deserters from Osman Digna's forces have reached Sinkat, and are joining the Anglo-Egyptian army....The German government, it is said, will introduce a bill to increase the beer tax threefold.

Thursday, September 30.—The Democratic convention of Greater New York was held; Robert A. Van Wyck, of Manhattan, who was Richard Croker's selection, was nominated for mayor; the platform adopted avoided all reference to free silver and the Chicago platform.... General A. J. Warner has announced himself as a Candidate for United States Senator from Ohio....The Secretary of the Navy decided to send the gunboat *Newport* to Nicaragua with the canal commission....Dr. Nansen, the Arctic explorer, is to receive $65,000 and a percentage of the receipts for fifty lectures in the United States.

Friday, October 1.—Secretary of the Navy Long, it is understood, in his annual report, will recommend the construction of three battle ships and ten torpedo boats....The North Atlantic squadron will rendezvous at Boston by October 14 to be present at the centenary of the launching of the old frigate *Constitution*.... Members of the Citizen's Union, who favor Seth Low for mayor of Greater New York, are much encouraged by the outcome of the Tammany convention....The Democratic Alliance of Greater New York nominated Henry George for mayor....The boundary dispute between Nicaragua and Costa Rica has been decided in favor of Nicaragua by General Alexander, who was appointed by President Cleveland to settle it....M. Ralli and the ministers composing the Greek cabinet tendered their resignations which were accepted by King George ....The London "Globe" says the Pope's weakness is increasing.

Saturday, October 2.—The British blue book on the Bering Sea question was received at the State Department....Gen. Neal Dow, the great advocate of the temperance cause, died at his residence, in Portland, Me., at the age of 93.... Señor Sagasta, the Liberal leader, was entrusted by the Queen Regent of Spain with the task of forming a new Spanish ministry; it was reported that General Weyler had been recalled and would be succeeded by Marshal Blanco....A Nicaraguan loan of 7,000,000 pesos has been authorized by the Congress of that country.... The tribesmen are reported to be gathering in force on the Indian frontier to resist the British advance....The formation of a new Greek Cabinet, with M. Zaimis as Premier, was announced at Athens.

Sunday, October 3.—The sum of $93,709 was collected last month at New York as duty on the personal baggage of returning tourists.... The Union Pacific Railroad will be sold on November 1; the re-organization committee will be the only bidder, and their guaranty offer is about $50,000,000, including the sinking fund in the treasury....Prince Hohenlohe and Admiral von Terpitz will consult with Emperor William on the naval programme; the Naval Bill contemplates an appropriation of 401,000,000 marks, to be distributed over seven years....The new Ministers in Greece who succeed M. Ralli's cabinet took the oath of office.

Monday, October 4.—A Chicago dispatch says that the executive officers of the western roads have addressed a note to the Union Pacific, saying that from this time on they will hold that road alone responsible for the demoralization in trans-continental passenger rates ... Señor Sagasta, of Spain, in offering the Cabinet portfolios, expressed his intention to give the largest possible measure of Cuban home rule, to reverse the Conservative policy in Cuba and the Philippines, and to recall General Weyler if he did not resign....The steamship *Reina Christina*, which arrived at Havana, brought to General Weyler $2,000,000 for military expenses....Advices received by the steamship *Victoria*, which has arrived at Tacoma, Washington, show that fighting is still going on in the Philippine Islands.

Tuesday, October 5.—The cost of providing for the subsistence of the army last year was $1,972,702....The President has appointed Laurits B. Swenson minister to Denmark and ex-Congressman Hunter, of Kentucky, minister to Guatemala....Henry George, at a large mass-meeting in Cooper Union, New York, accepted his nomination for mayor....The Ameer of Afghanistan has refused to listen to the appeal of the Afridis who applied to him for assistance against the British; he has also issued a proclamation to the Afghans.

Wednesday, October 6.—German-American day was observed at the Tennessee centennial exposition, Nashville; there was a large attendance....Five deaths from yellow fever and thirty-eight new cases of the disease were reported in New Orleans; this is the worst record of the present outbreak....Seth Low formally accepted the Citizens' Union nomination for mayor of Greater New York at a mass-meeting held at Cooper Union....Ambassador Hay has been informed of the final decision of Great Britain to refuse to take part in any sealing conference with representatives of Russia and Japan....The Spanish cabinet decided to grant autonomy to Cuba under the suzerainty of Spain and to continue the campaign as long as may be necessary....Letters from Queen Victoria to Lord Tennyson, just published in the poet's biography, disclose the Queen's opposition to Mr. Gladstone's home-rule policy.... The government of India has notified the British cabinet that it will not be a party to re-opening its mints for the free coinage of silver.

Thursday, October 7.—The committee of the Indian famine fund held its final meeting in London; the lord mayor announced that the total of subscriptions from Great Britain, the United States, the British Colonies, and India, amounted to nearly £1,500,000, and that the total cost of the famine was over £10,000,000.

Friday, October 8.—Secretary Gage, in an address at the dedication of the Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill., took the ground that the rich are not growing richer and the poor poorer....Hon. Wm. J. Bryan took part in the celebration of Nebraska day at the Tennessee centennial exposition.

Saturday, October 9.—General B. F. Tracy, District Attorney W. M. K. Olcott, and Senator Foraker, of Ohio, spoke at a Republican mass-meeting in Cooper Union, New York....General Weyler has been recalled from command in Cuba.

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INQUIRIES ANSWERED

THE club of which I am a member proposes, as the subject of discussion for part of the coming season's work, "England and her Colonial Possessions." One or more papers are to be read on each colony, with a general conversation afterwards. May I beg your help in outlining the topics to be treated of in regard to the Indian Empire and the British colonies and dependencies in Africa?

The discussions of your club on "England and her Possessions" should prove exceedingly interesting as well as instructive. They will necessarily bring you in contact with the countries and peoples of almost every clime, and ought to be useful lessons in elucidating what is most admirable in England's system of Colonial Government. The topics to be discussed besides the physical geography, which largely shapes and determines the race characteristics, habits and occupations of the population, are:

(1.) *In the case of India:* First, a brief glance at its ancient history, its aboriginal (non-Aryan) races, the primitive Hindooism, the introduction of Buddhism, the invasion of Alexander the Great, the conquest by the Mogul Tartars and the intrusion of Mohammedanism. Secondly, the coming of the Portuguese and the Dutch, the founding of the English and French East India Companies, the rise of the Mahratta power, the rivalries of the French and English and the foundation of the British rule under Lord Clive; Pondicherry, Arcot and Plassey; the régime of Warren Hastings, his conflicts with his council; accusations, recall and impeachment. Thirdly, Hyder Ali and the Mahrattas; wars with Tippoo Sahib; the Mahratta, Burmese and Afghan Wars; the Scinde Gwalior, Sikh, and Second Burmese Wars; the Mutiny; the India Act of 1858 and change of rule from the East India Company to the Crown; the Afghan War (1878–1880); annexation of Upper Burma; progress and benefits of British rule; famine and efforts for its mitigation, and the assistance given by the government in opening the country, in improving its administration and, economically, in extending the system of irrigation.

(2.) *In the case of Africa:* Attention should first be given to its configuration, to its varied zones of production, to the native races and their habits, from Egypt to the Cape, and to its great natural resources. Secondly, notice should be taken of the early navigators who discovered and rounded the Cape, the initial settlements upon its coasts by the various nations; early Dutch colonization; rise of British power at the Cape and extension of dominion inland; missionary evangelization in connection with Moffat, Livingstone, and others; and the results of discovery in the equatorial regions; the geographers and travellers, Du Chaillu, Speke, Grant, Baker, Schweinfurth, and Emin Pasha; Stanley and the Congo; the Ashantee, Abyssinian and Boer Wars; the Egyptian War and death of "Chinese" Gordon at Khartoum; attempt of Italy to colonize Erythrea; further British advance in the Soudan; Rhodesia, Matabeleland, the Transvaal and its gold and diamond treasures; difficulties with the South African Republic, including the abortive Jameson raid.

See the articles on India and Africa in the Encyclopædia Britannica, and the article on the latter in the new Supplement.

Please explain the meaning of the phrase I have frequently met with, "to pass the Rubicon." What difficulty or hazard was involved in crossing the stream?

The Rubicon, a stream of central Italy, falling into the Adriatic, has obtained a proverbial celebrity from the well-known story of its passage by Cæsar, who, by crossing this river — which, at the outbreak of the civil war between him and Pompey, formed the southern boundary of his province — virtually declared war against the Roman Republic. Hence the phrase, "to cross the Rubicon," has come to mean, to take an irrevocable step. The modern Luso, called by the peasants on its banks "Il Rubicone," has claims to being the ancient Rubicon, but arguments preponderate in favor of "The Fiumicino."

I should like to know something of a Society founded in England by scientific men, with a branch, I believe, in this country, for the investigation of occult matters, including spiritualism, second sight, etc. Kindly state who have to do with it, and what it has practically accomplished.

Our correspondent no doubt refers to the incorporated "Society for Psychical Research," founded in London in 1882, for the purpose of making an organized attempt to investigate that large group of debatable phenomena designated by such terms as mesmeric, psychical, and

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spiritualistic. The examination of telepathy (the supposed communication between two minds, at a distance, without the aid of any known medium, as sight or sound, or under any known physical law) has been an interested subject of the Society's inquiries, including the phenomena of thought-transference and mind-reading. The results of experiments, observation, and research on the part of its members, are published in the "Proceedings" of the Society; and a large collection of cases of telepathic communication, forewarnings of impending disaster, deaths, etc., has been published in a voluminous work, edited by secretaries of the Society, Messrs. Myers, Podmore, and Gurney, entitled "Phantasms of the Living." A number of prominent scientists in England and the United States are active members, while it has had as presidents of the organization such men as Prof. Henry Sidgwick, the well-known writer on Ethics, Prof. Wm. Crookes, F. R. S., Dr. Wm. James, professor of Psychology in Harvard, and among its foremost contributors and investigators, Prof. Balfour Stewart, R. H. Hutton, Hon. Arthur Balfour, Prof. Lodge, Prof. Langley, Hensleigh Wedgewood, F. W. Myers, and Edmund Gurney.

Mediumsl ρ, including hallucinations, trance revelations, slate writing, furniture moving, etc., has been vigorously investigated by the Society, and on the whole has fared badly at its hands, on account of fraud and imposture. The deliberations of the Society have, in the main, been carried on in a remarkable spirit of fairness and absence of bias or prejudice, inasmuch as its membership is largely composed of men whose first and highest desire is to learn the truth. Their efforts and interests have been directed, not toward the field of *a priori* speculation, but to the wide-open arena of evidence and testimony. Hitherto, the phenomena generally called mystical, has usually been treated with more or less scientific contempt. It is something gained that investigation is now being conducted eagerly and earnestly, yet critically, and a serious attempt made to weigh the evidence for the supernatural. What the results will prove, and where the phenomena are genuine, what explanation can be given of them, it is perhaps too early yet to say.

Enclosed are two questions which I should be glad to have SELF CULTURE answer. (1) Who appoints the committees of the United States Senate? (2) Where is the key of the Bastile?

(1) Both Houses of Congress have standing and select committees, the most important of which are the committees on appropriations of the Senate and of the House, the Senate committee on finance, the House committee on ways and means, and the Senate and the House committees on the judiciary and on foreign affairs. The Senate standing committees are selected in a caucus of the dominant party, and are subsequently voted for in a body by the Senate. The standing committees of the House are all appointed by the Speaker. (2) Hanging in the entrance hall of Mount Vernon is the key sent to Washington by Lafayette soon after the destruction of that noted stronghold by the Paris mob, on July 14, 1789.

The editorial in SELF CULTURE for August, on "Stenography in the Schools," has suggested the inquiry: What is the best system of shorthand to study in order to gain a thorough and easily acquired knowledge of the art?

It would be a difficult matter, in considering the numerous systems in vogue, to say which possesses the greatest merits to one about to take up the study of Shorthand. The leading features of stenography are the results of the labor of Sir Isaac Pitman, of England, who for nearly thirty years devoted much of his time to its development and propagation. But the high degree of perfection to which it has been brought at present, is owing, in great measure, to the suggestions of thousands of practical stenographers both in England and the United States. This mode of development has its merits and demerits, coming as it has from such a vast number of sources. The art to-day possesses a richness of material which could hardly have been obtained in any other way. On the other hand, this kind of growth has a tendency to render the system less uniform and consistent in matters of detail than it would have been had it emanated from a single mind.

It is the working out of the original principles of the Pitman method which constitutes the systems of the present day. Perhaps the most successful modification which has been introduced is that of the Graham system. The latter system is very popular, and contains some excellent modifications and has answered all the requirements of varied usefulness that a knowlege of the art of shorthand-writing could suggest. Another successful system is the Munson, which is taught at present in many of the foremost business colleges of the country.

Perhaps, on the whole, the best general textbook for elementary use in shorthand is the Pitman-Graham system, as modified by Alfred Day, the scope of which is restricted to the

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writing of separate words and the putting of them into sentences, with such expedients as will enable the learner to write with the rapidity of speech, leaving the higher duties of the amanuensis and professional writer, the law and general reporter, to be learned from more advanced books, auxiliary to the work mentioned.

A system has of late come into vogue called the Eclectic system, which may be acquired with greater speed than others. It purports to contain the chief and best features of all systems. Whatever college a student elects to study at, it will name the system there taught as superior to others, and as the main features of the science are the same in all systems, there need be no great hesitation in choosing.

Will SELF CULTURE please give me directions how to treat mange in a dog?

The treatment of mange consists in destroying the *acari* or parasitic mites, which burrow in the skin. This is done by washing the parts thoroughly every second day with soft soap and water, and dressing daily with sulphur or mild mercurial ointment, or with a solution containing four grains either of corrosive sublimate or arsenic to the ounce of water. Castor oil seeds, bruised and steeped for twelve hours in buttermilk, are also successfully used. When the heat and itching are great, a few drops of tincture of belladona may be used to the usual dressing or applied with a little glycerine.

If you do not wish to take the trouble to prepare the wash, you should ask any druggist or gunsmith for the "Associated Dog Fancier's Mange Wash," an excellent preparation manufactured at Philadelphia (400 No. Third St). As dieting is very essential in this disease, you will do well to use the "New Process Dog Biscuit," manufactured by the above firm. See, also, their "Practical Dog Book" (price 15 c.), with illustrations and descriptions of the various breeds of dogs, and instructions for treating their diseases.

I should like to know if fishes are endowed by nature with the five senses?

Fish are endowed with the five senses, save in unusual cases as, for example, the blind fish of Mammoth Cave. (See Vol. XV., Encyc. Brit., page 450.) In the majority of fishes the sense of touch is limited to the lips, to parts of the fins, and to special organs, called barbels. The fins are in many fishes modified to serve as organs of touch. (See Vol. XXIII., page 478.) The organ of smell in fish consists of a membrane lining one or two pits, to which the olfactory or first pair of cranial nerves are distributed. In most fishes the olfactory organs are double and have no communication with the mouth. In the shark the nasal cavities exist below the snout; in the rays near the angles of the mouth, and in the saw-fish beneath the fore part of the head, behind the base of the rostrum. In such cases the olfactory organ is guarded by valves and these fishes scent as well as smell. (See Vol. XXII., page 166.)

Will SELF CULTURE answer the following questions:

1. Where is the camphor tree grown?
2. Will it grow in North America?
3. What is the process of extracting the gum?

(1, 2.) The camphor laurel, or camphor tree, from which the greater part of the common camphor known to commerce is produced, is a gigantic evergreen, bearing considerable resemblance to the common laurel, except as regards size, attaining, as it sometimes does, to a height of 50 feet, and a girth of 20 feet, with branches 8 or 9 feet in circumference. The leaves are shiny, and of a bright green color, emitting a camphoraceous odor when bruised. The wood is white and fragrant, and is much used by the Chinese in carpentry, as it is proof against the attacks of insects. The chief habitat of the camphor laurel is the Island of Formosa, where it reaches the greatest size, and where most of the camphor of Western commerce is produced. It also flourishes in China, Japan, and Cochin-China, and has now become naturalized in most of the tropical and warmer countries of the world, as in Java, Brazil, Jamaica, and the West Indies, the Cape of Good Hope, Madeira and the Mediterranean region. It is to be found in sheltered spots in Italy, as far north as the Lago Maggiore, where it forms a large and handsome tree. It is commonly found in all the botanical gardens and nurseries around Paris, and is not unknown in this country, shrubs of camphor laurel having been introduced recently and experimented with in Southern Georgia and Florida.

(3.) In the portions of the Island of Formosa formerly included under Chinese territory, the camphor laurel is not found. It is confined to the country of the aborigines and its immediate borders. This circumstance is owing to the fact that the extraction of the gum substance entails the destruction of the tree, and as this destruction has never been compensated for by replanting, in consequence of the disturbed relations between the two races, the forests have been gradually cleared away. The methods of producing the camphor are as follows. The

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trees, as required, are selected for the abundance of their sap, many being too dry to repay the cost of treatment. The best part of the wood is secured for timber, while the branches and refuse are taken while freshly cut, and chopped into little pieces for distillation. The workmen choose a place and build a temporary dwelling and camphor still. These are of very rude construction; over eight or ten hearth-fires is placed a long wooden trough, coated with clay and half filled with water. Boards filled with holes are fitted on the trough, and above these are placed jars containing the chips and branches. The latter are surmounted by inverted earthen pots, and the joints are made air-tight by means of hemp packing. When the fires are kindled, the generated steam passes up through the pierced boards, and, saturating the green chips, causes the sublimated camphor to settle in crystals in the inside of the pots, from which it is scraped off, and afterward passed through a second process of distillation to remove the impurities. The crude camphor is placed in layers of dry powdered earth mixed with lime, in a copper still, which is covered at the top with green mint. A second vessel smeared with clay is placed over the top and the apparatus placed over a regulated fire, where the contents are heated for a considerable time. After cooling the camphor is found to have sublimed and attached itself to the upper vessel. It is gathered and packed in large vats or tubs provided with escape holes at the bottom and stowed in carts of rude construction. It is then ready for shipment. Through these holes in the tubs exudes an oily or uncrystallizable liquid known as "camphor oil."

SELF CULTURE has so often helped me, and helped me so well, that I again come to it for assistance. This time I desire it to indicate a few books on English and American literature, that will enable me to familiarize myself with the authors of the era and to learn how they are regarded. My studies hitherto have led me to neglect literature, and I feel the necessity now of repairing the loss I have suffered.

To enable you to obtain a good general acquaintance with current literature, English and American, we would recommend you to procure: Saintsbury's "Nineteenth Century Literature" (price $1.50), The Macmillan Co., 66 Fifth Ave., New York, publishers; Prof. Pattee's "History of American Literature" (price $1.50), Silver, Burdett & Co., publishers, Chicago, Boston, and New York; Stedman's "Victorian Poets," and his "Poets of America" (price $2.25 each), Houghton, Mifflin & Co., New York and Boston. For the earlier English authors, you will find Thomas Arnold's "English Literature" (price $2.00), Longmans, Green & Co., Fifth Ave., New York, a good manual; while if you desire a collection of the English prose writers, with selections and critical introductions from the earliest period to date, you will find very useful Dr. Henry Craik's "English Prose Selections," in 5 vols. ($1.10 per volume), published by The Macmillan Co.

You will do well at the same time to write to Maynard, Merrill & Co., 47 E. 10th St., New York, and ask for a complete list of their "English Classic Series," of which about 200 issues have appeared (price 12 cents each). The series is composed of separate essays, poems, etc., from the most eminent writers, with annotations, and introductions. From this list you can make selections, to your taste, for many weeks' or months' reading.

Some excellent hints for a course of reading on Fiction, History, Philosophy, Biography, Travel, Literature, Belles Lettres and the Fine Arts, you will find in the American Library Association's "List of Books for Girls and Women and Their Clubs" (price in paper, 50 cents), to be had at the Library Bureau, 125 Franklin St., Chicago, and 146 Franklin St., Boston. Any further assistance or advice you desire, we shall be happy to furnish you.

Will SELF CULTURE kindly favor me with some facts concerning the Empresses Catherine I. and II. of Russia, with an indication of their personal characters?

Catherine I. (the Great), 1679–1727, Empress of Russia. The chief events of her reign you will find set forth in the biography in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. V., p. 232. Her origin was an obscure one; she was a peasant's daughter, and bore the name of Martha Skavrouska. Being early left an orphan she was brought up by a Lutheran pastor in Marienburg, Lavonia. In 1702 she married a Swedish dragoon, and in the same year was taken prisoner by the Russians at the capture of Marienburg, and became the mistress of Prince Menschikoff, and afterwards of Peter the Great, who married her (privately) in 1707, and publicly acknowledged her four years later. She was crowned Empress in 1712. On the death of her husband, in 1725, she became sole ruler of Russia, and her old admirer, Menschikoff, directed the affairs of her government. In her later years, she fell under the influence of favorites and became very dissipated, which hastened her end, in 1727. Her daughter, Elizabeth, became Empress.

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Catherine II., Empress of Russia, 1762–1796 (for Memoir, see also Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. V., p. 233). She was born at Stettin, Prussia, May 2, 1729, and died at St. Petersburg, November 17, 1796. Her father was the Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst, a Prussian field-marshal and Governor of Stettin. Like Catherine I. she took the name of Catherine on her passing from the Lutheran to the Greek Church on her marriage to the Empress Elizabeth's nephew, who became Peter III. of Russia in 1762. This half-imbecile ruler (her husband) she deposed, with the assistance of her paramour, Gregory Orloff, the hetman (Polish Commander-in-chief) Razamovski, and Count Panin. She then usurped the throne (her husband having meantime been put to death). Another of her lovers was Potemkin, Russian Minister of State. She had the great French encyclopedists—Voltaire, Diderot, and D'Alembert,—her admiring mouthpieces, to apologize for and extol her government. Of Catherine II. a writer has said that "she was a woman whose capacities were early felt to be great, but were great for evil as well as for good. . . . She was without scruple in the gratification of her passions, and without delicacy in their concealment; and a succession of lovers, installed ostentatiously in her palace, proclaimed to the world the shamelessness of their mistress." She was a woman of much ability, and was styled "The Semiramis of the North," though of very dissolute habits. See Took's History of Catharine II., and the "Memoir" by herself.

Probably this question is not of much importance, but the other day it was debated, with varying opinions, in our home circle. The question is: "How does a fly walk on the window, ceiling, or other smooth surface?"

The foot of the fly is furnished with a remarkable apparatus which enables the insect to walk upon what appears to us perfectly smooth or polished surfaces, and also to progress in a position opposed to the laws of gravity. This apparatus consists of two movable claws, resembling cow's horns in shape, which the insect can affix to any little eminences or depressions that present themselves in its course; and, further, of a pair of membranous expansions, termed, in familiar language, pads. It has been revealed through the higher powers of the microscope that these pads are furnished with innumerable hairs, and that at the termination of each of these hairs that cover the surface, there is a minute expansion, which is kept moist by a fluid exuding from the extremity. The belief now prevails that, whilst each single hairlet operates as a sucking disc, the two pads themselves act as cushions for the preservation of the two larger hooks (which would otherwise become abraded), in a similar manner to the soft cushions that protect the sole of a cat's foot, and enable it to tread lightly.

It is this seemingly simple but effective apparatus which enables a fly to maintain its hold with security in any position, whether progressing on the smooth, vertical pane of glass, or walking on the ceiling with its feet upwards, thus setting at defiance the law of gravitation. There is perhaps, not a more interesting object in the animal creation for study under the microscope, than the wonderful structure the common house-fly.

I have heard various accounts of the short day in winter on the Yukon River, in the vicinity of the Klondyke goldfields, and desire to know what the facts are. Please inform me; also, please state what the temperature really is during the winter months.

In the Klondyke region in midwinter the sun rises from 9.30 to 10 a. m., and sets from 2 to 3 p. m., the total length of daylight being about four hours. The changes of temperature from winter to summer are rapid, owing to the great increase in the length of the day. In May the sun rises at about 3 a. m. and sets about 9 p. m. In June it rises about 1.30 a. m. and sets at 10.30 at night, giving about twenty hours of daylight, and diffuse twilight the remainder of the time. The mean temperature of the winter months is as follows: Oct. 33°; Nov. 8°; Dec. 11° below zero; Jan. 17° below; Feb. 15° above; Mar. 6° above; and April 20° above. The closed (ice) season is usually 175 days in extent, or from early in Nov. till late in Feb. The lowest registered temperatures during the winter of 1889–90 were 32° below zero in Nov.; 47° below in Dec.; 59° below in Jan.; 55° below in Feb.; 45° below in Mar.; and 26° below in April. The mean summer temperature ranges between 60° and 70°, according to elevation, when life is, we believe, almost unbearable from the ravages of black flies and mosquitoes.

Through the medium of your interesting monthly, I would ask to be informed what, in your opinion, is the most desirable method for a small literary circle to pursue in order to make an interesting, thorough and comprehensive study of English essays.

There are two methods, either of which may be followed in making a study of the English

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Essayists — (1) the topical, and (2) the chronological. That is to say, you may either take the Essayists by successive periods, from Lord Bacon's day to the present; or take them by subjects, in the departments of history, philosophy, science, religion, education, *belles lettres*, and sociology. If you read them by subjects, there is no reason why you shouldn't at the same time follow the chronological order. The American Essayists, it will be interesting to take up in connection with their English confrères, and to draw parallels or contrasts between them. We append a list of the more prominent British Essayists, from the earliest period, which you may find it profitable to study.

Lord Bacon (father of the Essay), Pope, Addison, Steele, Hume, Goldsmith, Sydney Smith, Lamb, De Quincey, "Christopher North," Hazlitt, Jeffrey, Landor, Carlyle, Foster, Macaulay, Sir Arthur Helps, W. R. Greg, Abraham Hayward, Walter Bagehot, Dr. John Brown, John Ruskin, Matthew Arnold, John Richard Green, John Morley, Frederic Harrison, E. A. Freeman, Huxley, Froude, Goldwin Smith, Leslie Stephen, Richard Holt Hutton, Andrew Lang, Herbert Spencer.

I am asked to speak on a subject on which I should like SELF CULTURE to give me some aid. The question is "The benefit of frequent Christian Endeavor Conventions."

It has been said by an ardent advocate that the Christian Endeavor Association among the young is the greatest organized movement for the cause of Christianity that has appeared for five centuries. The great benefit which comes to the cause from frequent conventions, lies in the fact that each convention, held in the various sections of the country, is bound to awaken a new and wide-spread interest in the movement, and is the means of drawing into its fold many new minds, which would otherwise never be made aware of the immense power and growing influence of such an organization among the youth of the land. American life has already been greatly quickened and enlarged by the influence of this movement; and by the signs of the times we may believe that what gains have already been made are prophetic of what the harvest will be. In a self-governing nation, like the United States, the all-absorbing subject is politics. Religion, literature and general culture suffer from the prominence of politics in the thoughts of young men, and therefore the most practical result of Christian Endeavor assemblies, as they convene in the different parts of the country, is apt to be political. The Christian Endeavor movement has, however, been able to draw the attention of youth from the fascination of political and national matters to religious themes, and it is high time that the stringent pressure of politics on the juvenile mind should be relieved, and be replaced by the less dangerous and more elevating force of religious thought. It is a well-known fact, and history has repeatedly proved this, that the greatest religious movements have begun among the young. The Evangelical revival of the eighteenth century, and the Tractarian movement of this century, originated among Oxford students. There are scores of other instances. Youthful vitality is a great positive force, which will expand itself in legitimate enterprise, or waste itself in its own dissipation. Our religious and social systems must utilize the juvenile element, or they will be demoralized by it.

We have affirmed that one great danger to the morality of American life is the prevalence of politics, and the frequency of political and social caucuses: The Christian Endeavorers, by holding their conventions at regular intervals and selected localities, are bringing about a transition, and the subject of religion is clamoring for a share of attention, therefore this juvenile revival comes as a Godsend. It is a Protestant movement, and supplies the needs felt only in Protestant churches. Christian Endeavor is synthetic and catholic, and protests against doctrinal ardor and the intense and exclusive feeling of sectarianism. It is devotional and practical, and sounds the signal for the assembling in one common company of Christian workers. Other religious movements have presented creeds, written or unwritten, things to be denied and things to be believed. Christian Endeavor, instead of a creed, presents a pledge. What it cannot affirm, it takes no trouble to deny. We often hear it said that youth is deficient in religious feeling. Nothing can be farther from the truth. It may grow restless and fall asleep under abstruse dissertations, or smile at the puerilities of ritualism, but this is not from lack of religious sentiment. It is the very warmth of religious nature, its demand for reality, that rebels against the cold and dry elements in church life. The openness of mind to new revelations of truth, the susceptibility to conviction, the headlong pursuit of the ideal, that never counts the cost — these are the elements of religion, and they are characteristic of youth. To enlist the cooperation and attention of the juvenile mind, religious endeavor must be made attractive and agreeable. The Christian Endeavor, as we have it to-day, embodies attractive features and

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wholesome pastimes; its conventions should be frequently held, and continue to be liberal in their scope.

Will you kindly inform me of the name of Herrick's poem in which these lines occur: "Gather ye rosebuds while ye may?" Also please state where I can obtain the poem. I have been called upon for an essay, to be read at a teachers' meeting, and have selected the quoted line for my theme. May I ask for a suggestive point or two to be brought out in the preparation of the essay?

The poem you refer to is one of the jewel-like lyrics of Robert Herrick [1591–1674], to be found in stanza 208 in the collection entitled "Hesperides." The stanza, an appeal to the Virgins to make much of Time, is as follows:

"Gather ye rosebuds while ye may,
Old Time is still a-flying,
And this same flower that smiles to-day,
To-morrow will be dying."

The poet appears to have found the idea for his verse in Edmund Spenser's "Faerie Queene," Book II, Canto XII, St. 75. It runs thus:

"Gather therefore the roses whilst yet is prime,
For soon comes age that will her pride defloure:
Gather the rose of love whilst yet is time.
Whilst loving thou mayest loved be with equal crime."

A cheap, accessible edition of Herrick's "Hesperides" is that in Prof. Morley's "Universal Library" (price 40c.), published by Geo. Routledge & Sons, 27–29 W. 23rd St., New York. The collection, which the poet speaks of as "Unbaptized rhymes, writ in my wild, unhallowed times," has much of the character of Anacreon's and Catullus's verse. Where the vein is pure, there is much beauty and lyric grace, added to warmth of feeling and vigor of imagination. Here and there, unfortunately, there are marring strains of licentiousness in Herrick's poetry, which though palliated in his own day, are alien to the chaster taste of our time.

The lesson sought to be enforced in the stanza from Herrick is obvious, and may be translated into the injunction: Improve the passing hours, since time's footstep is fleet, and to-morrow, if it comes to us at all, may bring, with altered conditions, more limited opportunities. In a poetic way, it incites to present rather than to deferred action, and abjures procrastination. The lesson may be paid heed to in every duty and circumstance of life. As Epictetus put it, in speaking of the duty of attention, we are commanded "if it is good to use attention to-morrow, to use it also to-day;" and so with all other life's occupations and engagements, if there is advantage in doing a thing at all, we do well to do it now, instead of deferring it till the opportunity passes, or until a time comes when we may not be free agents and so be unable to act. "Who seeks," says Shakespeare, "and will not take when once 'tis offered, shall never find it more." And again, "The means that heaven yields must be embraced, and not neglected."

I find in my studies, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, that a knowledge of Latin would be of advantage to me. Will you please indicate how I can best acquire that knowledge?

Your best and easiest course in acquiring a knowledge of Latin is to possess yourself of a good elementary text-book, such as you can obtain from Messrs. Ginn & Co., school-book publishers, Boston, New York and Chicago. If you will write to them for Collar and Daniell's "Beginner's Latin Book" (price $1.00) and their "First Latin Book" (price $1.00), or for Allen's "Latin Primer" and his "New Latin Method" (price 90 c. each), you will find such manuals as will be available for your purpose. When you have made some progress with these introductory works, you may then take up in succession some of the best-known Latin authors, beginning with Cæsar's "Bello Gallico" and advancing to the early books of Virgil's Æneid, Horace's Odes, the first two books of Livy, then to the Annals of Tacitus, and the more difficult prose authors.

You don't say whether you design to have a teacher or to pursue your way unaided. You would do better, we should say, if you took the course in Latin at the Young Men's Christian Association in your city, or at some of the night classes held by tutors in Languages. Even a few lessons from a private instructor, would put you in the way of a start, leaving you, with the aid of a good dictionary, to make your own progress afterwards.

In the September number of SELF CULTURE, page 525, one of your contributors, referring to the War of 1812, remarks that the treaty of Ghent, which brought the war to a close, did not result as the British Government had expected, "owing to the stupidity and ignorance of its own commissioners." Pray what did the British design to accomplish by the treaty? Please also let me know if any of the men who fought on the battleship "Monitor" are now alive.

The English commissioners at Ghent, in 1814, sought to secure by the peace a large part

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of Maine and New York, all Florida, Louisiana, and parts of Michigan, while most of Ohio, Illinois and Indiana were to be set off as an Indian buffer State, and the United States were to abandon military operations on the Lakes and cede the American shore of the Niagara river.

The English commissioners, being opposed by much abler men, in the Americans, and men of heavier calibre, had to abandon their claims and submit to a settlement which was far inferior to what they had asked; while the ground of quarrel, the right of search on the part of Britain, was unadjusted. If you will refer to SELF CULTURE for June, 1896 (page 219, Vol. III.), the article on "The War of 1812," by Joseph M. Rogers, you will find the subject fully dealt with.

Yes, we should say that many of the officers and men on board the "Monitor," which foundered in December, 1862, are yet alive. The ship's crew were rescued when the vessel went down, and as the event occurred only thirty-five years ago, there must be many still alive of her crew.

I am one of the members of a debating society which occasionally engages in friendly rival contests with a literary organization. In the contests we have already had we have beaten our opponents, chiefly on the points furnished by you. We are now to debate the question, "Resolved, That an Income Tax is an equitable part of a scheme of national taxation," and I desire, with your kind compliance, some points on the negative side of the discussion.

We have selected and placed separately, at the outset, some of the chief points which may be brought out on the negative side of the question of an Income Tax. These points as arranged may serve as a guide to the line of argument and the groundwork for the essentials of the discussion. Each of the points outlined may be enlarged upon by looking up the references named.

1. An income tax is bad in theory. It is unjust; it is inimical to personal liberty; it discriminates against the well-to-do classes and against temporary incomes. Its effect on morals is bad. It offers every temptation to commit fraud, and it tends to arrest the accumulation of wealth. It is class legislation, and occasions unjust territorial distribution.

2. The National Government should not interfere in the domain of State and municipal taxation (see "Public Opinion," XVI., 477). An income tax is objectionable in administration. (See J. S. Mill, "Principles of Political Economy," Vol. II, Book V., chap. 3, sec. 5.)

3. It is inquisitorial; it is difficult to collect; it is very hard to ascertain real incomes, and the truth about them is easily evaded.

4. It has serious inequalities, and, consequently, it is very unpopular. It is extremely arbitrary and leads to great abuses.

5. An income tax is impracticable, while its workings have not generally proved successful. In Europe, especially in Switzerland and Prussia, this is the case (see "Quarterly Journal of Economics," VI. 219). The English Government, we believe, would be glad to rid the nation of the tax. In the United States the tax levied during the war had to be abolished in 1871, on account of inequalities and irregularities. For additional matter to prove these points see, Senator Hill in "Congressional Record," 1893–1894, page 6611–6624. (June 21, 1894), 1894–1895, pages 840–850. (Jan. 11, 1895); also "The Forum," XVII., page 1. (Mar. 1894); "North American Review," vol. 130, page 236. Vol. 160, page 601 (May, 1895).

The first impression of most students of the subject of taxation is probably in favor of a general income tax, that is, a tax upon incomes from earnings as well as from investments. But this impression is soon dissipated by a careful study of the subject. It is manifestly unfair that a man who derives his income from accumulated wealth should pay no more than another who earns his income by hard manual labor. If the rate of taxation is uniform, it bears severely upon the poor, as compared with the rich. If it is graduated, increasing with expanding income, it cannot be efficiently collected. Under any system, an income tax upon earnings and profits has to be assessed largely upon the personal oath of the taxpayer, which long experience shows to be a very poor security. The consequence is that, even under a rigid and honest administration of the law, which prevails in England and in several European countries, fully one-third of this part of the tax is evaded by false returns. The general income tax is thus a fruitful source of perjury, and since perjurers would thus escape taxation, in whole or in part, it is manifest that the tax would be unequal in its operation, and bear twice as heavily upon the honest as upon the dishonest.

Furthermore, a strict income tax would collect nothing from property which is held out of use. The landlord who improved his land would be taxed, but the landlord who kept it vacant would not be taxed at all. Thus a

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bounty would be put upon land speculation. Even as a temporary expedient the income tax, in any form, is entirely unsuited to American States and municipalities. New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, for example, will never adopt an absolutely uniform income tax or administer it on a uniform basis. Were it so imposed, the possessors of large incomes would change their residences from one State to another rather than come under its operations, or tamper with the assessor, who, for consideration, might be favorable to them.

An income tax upon interest is clearly not a direct tax. The burden would be largely, if not entirely, shifted upon the borrower. A tax upon rents would fall principally upon what, in economic science, is not "rent" at all, that is, upon the annual price paid for buildings and improvements.

All of this tax must, in the long run, be paid by the tenant. The income tax can never be accepted as the sole tax, for the above and other reasons. It can be used only by national governments, and even in their hands it must be confined to subjects of taxation, which can be much better reached by a straightforward direct tax upon values than upon incomes. The general income tax, upon earnings and profits, as well as upon fixed property, stands condemned by universal experience, since it is an incentive to perjury, and places a premium upon unproductive land. It is, moreover, a special burden upon the honest and upon the widow and orphan.

See "Natural Taxation," by Thomas G. Shearman, published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York (1895).

What became of the daughter of Louis XVI., the beheaded King of France? It is said that, in after life, she bore the title of Duchess of Angoulême. Please give a tolerably full account of her life and fate, and oblige a constant reader.

After the execution of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, their two children, Marie Thérèse Charlotte and the young Dauphin, heir presumptive to the Crown, continued to be held as prisoners in the Temple, where the King and his family had been conveyed on the 13th of August, 1792. The Temple had thus become the stage "on which was played out a drama more touching than fiction ever invented, and more sad than history ever recorded." The daughter of Louis XVI., known from her earliest youth as Madame Royale, became the historian of the captivity of herself and family in the Temple. The narrative has been published in connection with her Memoirs—"Filia Dolorosa: Memoirs of Maria Therèse Charlotte, the Duchess of Angoulême, the last of the Dauphines," translated by Mrs. Romer, and published by Richard Bentley, London (1853). The story thus told of the captivity as well as the subsequent life of the lonely and saddened orphan, is very pitiful. The fated and unjustifiable consummation of events in the execution of her parents and relatives were occasions of shame as well as of bitter anguish and inexpressible agony to the stricken daughter, and the shadows of these memories were never lifted from her life. Madame Royale, in her journal, speaks of these days of suffering as "the Terrible Days."

The most bitter of her sorrows was when she was called upon, in her helplessness and grief, to witness the death of her brother, the Dauphin, who, through the death of Louis XVI., became King of France (Louis XVII). This occurred in the Temple on the 9th of June, 1795, when he was but ten years old. This separation by death left the Princess the last prisoner of the Royal family. The death of the Prince seemed to arouse the nation from its apathy. The French people began to feel that "of death there had been enough, and of captivity too much." Eloquent expressions of this sentiment were sent to the Legislative Assembly in behalf of the solitary young girl whom it still detained in captivity in the Tower of the Temple. For some time release from her confinement seemed to be a result vainly hoped for. The Government at Vienna, indeed, proposed that France should name its own terms upon which the liberation of the Princess could be secured. After much negotiation France asked in exchange seven prisoners, among them the Republican Drouet, to whose act of disloyalty Madame Royale owed all her great sorrow.

On the 19th of Dec., 1795, the daughter of Louis XVI. was set at liberty, and on the 26th the exchange of prisoners was affected at Basle. The Emperor of Austria, it is said, would not have exerted himself on behalf of Madame Royale had it not been that the Court of Vienna had been urged thereto by Russia, at the prayer of her uncle Louis XVIII., and even then he was chiefly moved to action by the hope of inducing the Princess to give her hand to the Archduke Charles, with Provence as her dowry. She was exiled to the Austrian capital, where she remained until the month of May, 1799.

During her stay at the Court she was persecuted with the proposition of an alliance with the house of Hapsburg-Lorraine, in the person of the Archduke, and with the signing of documents relative to the protection of her interests as the daughter of Marie Antoinette. She re-

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mained inflexible, however, constantly referring to the parental injunction which betrothed her to her cousin, the Duke of Angoulême. Finally, the Czar of Russia, Emperor Paul, offered her a refuge with her uncle, Louis XVIII., at Mitau, and her honorable detention at the Austrian capital ceased in May, 1799. The Duke of Angoulême was also at Mitau and with him she was united in marriage on the 10th of June, the contract being signed by the Czar. The following year Bonaparte, taking advantage of a temporary friendship with the Czar, demanded the expulsion of the Royal exiles from Mitau. This was reluctantly ordered, and for two years the King, the Duke and Duchess with their suite wandered from city to city in Russia and Poland. Their residence was finally established in Warsaw.

Later on, when the proposition was made by Napoleon to purchase from Louis XVIII. a declaration, surrendering his claim and that of any of his family to the throne of France, which Louis declined to do, Napoleon demanded their banishment from Russia and an appeal was made to England for an asylum. In 1808, Louis XVIII., the Duke and Duchess of Angoulême with their party, were temporarily received and magnificently entertained at Gosfield Hall. Here they resided for two years, the Duchess of Angoulême leading a strictly retired life. On the 25th of March, 1815, news was received in England that Louis XVIII. was proclaimed King of France. On the 20th of April the King, with the Duke and Duchess of Angoulême left their pleasant refuge in England and entered Paris amid acclamations of joy. The eyes of the Duchess were red with weeping, being overcome with emotion, and an observant republican, who witnessed her entry and marked the inflamed lids that covered the yet sad blue and white of the eyes beneath them, exultingly exclaimed that the Duchess of Angoulême was a good republican after all, and that her very eyes bore the old tri-color.

The Duchess was very popular with the multitude, though her subsequent misfortunes were many. The Duchess entered into active life as mistress of the Royal household. From this time on the Duchess shared the ups and downs of the political fortunes of the Bourbon family. After the first Restoration and when Napoleon returned to France for his one hundred days' reign, the Duchess was again banished, this time to Spain. It was her conduct at Bordeaux before this banishment that won for her the admiration of Napoleon, and her bravery in reviewing the soldiers inspired the remark that the Duchess of Angoulême was "the only true man of the Bourbon family." "Rex Marie Therèse" might as fittingly have been applied to her, said Napoleon. The Duchess removed to Frohsdorf after the death of her husband the Duke (son of Charles X), which occurred at Goritz in 1844. Here she resided for the remainder of her days, having adopted two of her orphan nephews. She died in Vienna Oct. 19, 1851, and was buried on the 28th instant in the Franciscan convent at Goritz by the side of her husband.

The Duchess remained a devoted Catholic to the end, and displayed, it is said, a too fervent zeal for the cause, considering the liberal spirit of the time.

Will the editor of SELF CULTURE kindly give, in an early issue, a synopsis of the plot of the great French novel, "Les Miserables," by Victor Hugo? By doing so, he will greatly oblige a number of readers of his excellent magazine.

Jean Valjean, a poor tree-pruner, thrown out of work by hard times, sees his widowed sister and her children starving. He breaks a window, steals a loaf of bread, is caught, and is sentenced to four years at the galleys. Repeated attempts to escape cause this term to be lengthened to nineteen years, during which poor Valjean grows utterly soured, thinks society and Providence quite in the wrong, and hates them accordingly. Released at last, with his ticket-of-leave (the yellow passport), and his little earnings (100 francs and 15 sous, the fruit of 19 years savings), he finds himself met at every turn by vindictive society. He gets work, however, works hard and well, but at the day's end a gendarme comes to make him move on; a liberated convict cannot stay more than one day in his road to the place to which he is consigned. The man he has been working for, finding who he is, cuts his pay down just one-half, and when he complains kicks him out with insults. He walks all night till he gets to the next town. Here, he thinks, no one will take advantage of him because of his yellow passport. He sleeps two nights in a dog's kennel and at last gets to the Bishop's palace. The Bishop seats him at his own table, orders the spare bed to be got ready, and brings out his silver dinner-service, the sole mark of luxury which the Bishop, amid his wonderful self-denial, still retained.

Jean Valjean reasons that a man so conscientiously given to works of charity, ought not to have silver covers to the dishes on his table, and so he rises before daybreak, steals and makes off with them. He gets caught, but when he is brought to the Bishop by three triumphant policemen, he meets him with a smile and says, "Ah, my friend, I forgot to give you the candle-

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sticks, too," at the same time handing him a pair. The Bishop adds, "Now, mark, with these things I buy you back from the service of wickedness. Your soul is not your own any longer, I have bought it and have given it to God." Thus admonished, Valjean stalks forth with the booty.

But the man is not converted without a struggle. He has various further temptations to wickedness, to some of which he falls a victim. At length he is overcome with remorse, spends a night on his knees outside the Bishop's door, and then starts off a new man to his destination. He arrives just as the mayor's house is on fire. He is mainly instrumental in putting it out, though in the struggle he burns his yellow passport, and thus is able to settle down without his antecedents being known. He sells the Bishop's plate (except the candlesticks), and with the proceeds starts the manufacture of imitation jet, gets on rapidly, is named mayor, declines to act, but is forced to accept the office, and becomes the soul of all the local charities and of progress of every kind. He does a world of good and is worshipped by the poor and by his work-people. When interfering for a wretched prostitute to whom the police inspector had given six months for revenging a cruel practical joke, he hears a rumor that one Jean Valjean, a notorious convict, has been taken up for stealing apples, and is to be sent to the galleys for life.

After a terrible struggle between nature and conscience the following day he drives to the assize town, confesses, tells the three old galley-slaves who are to identify the supposed Jean Valjean such prison tales as prove that he himself is the man, frees the prisoner (who is wonderfully like him), and goes speedily back to the town of which he is mayor, saying that he will be ready when wanted.

He has just time enough to draw some 600-000 francs from his bankers and to wind up his affairs, when he is "wanted" by the very inspector whose six months' sentence he had a little before annulled. This man Javert reappears constantly in the story. He is the typical French policeman whose God is 'authority,' who looks on the merest technical offense as a grave moral outrage.

Valjean had promised the poor prostitute who died in the sick ward of his manufactory that he would take care of her child, then out at board in a village near Paris. He keeps his word, for when he escapes from Toulon, which he manages by tumbling overboard after he has successfully volunteered to save a man, he rescues the little girl Cosette, who is being cruelly used by the innkeeper's family where she has been placed, and makes a home for her in an out-of-the-way place in Paris. He deposits the 600,000 francs as a dowry for Cosette and goes about in disguise as a beggar, but giving to other unfortunate beggars all the alms he receives. Javert has got to Paris too, and is inspector in Valjean's neighborhood. Valjean, unfortunately for himself, gives charity to a beggar-spy who sits near his house, and he informs Javert of the strange "beggar who gives alms," and is recognized by him as the ex-mayor, and as Jean Valjean the convict. He gets hunted into a *cul-de-sac*, whence he and his portégé Cosette escape, he, by working himself, with ribs, elbows and hips, up the line of a perpendicular abutment, she, dragged up after him by the rope of one of the old hanging street lamps. Safe inside, he finds he is in a convent and *pensionnat* for young ladies. Jean gets work in the Convent garden, and Cosette gets admitted to the *pensionnat*. After a period of strange vicissitudes and adventures, Cosette meets with Marius, a lawyer, the son of a Baron, and accepts him as her lover. Marius and his friends go to the barricade. Jean Valjean gets there too. He goes there to save Marius, who, he has just learned by seeing her notebook, is the lover of Cosette. He has one of his usual wrenches of soul here, for he wanted to keep Cosette to himself, to have her as daughter, sister, wife, all in one. For awhile he hates Marius cordially. However he goes out to save him. Marius receives many wounds, but is protected from death by Valjean. Cosette and Marius marry and are happy, the former receiving the 600,000 francs as her dowry. A day or two after, Jean calls and confesses that he is an old galley-slave, and that he cannot call to see Cosette as his (Marius') wife without his permission. Marius informs him that he had best abandon his visits. Valjean did not make the confession without a terrible struggle, but thinks it right to do so. Yet he finds he cannot live without seeing his pet and protégé. He begs to come, and is permitted by Cosette to enter the lower rooms of her house. Soon he is snubbed and the doors are barred against him. Then he takes to his bed and dies. The most truly "miserable" thing in the whole book is the dying out of poor Jean Valjean's ideal — the utter unworthiness of Cosette.

We have given only a very brief synopsis of "Les Miserables" — all we can do within reasonable space. There are chapters giving the author's views on religion, on society, on French civilization, government, etc., but it is impossible to mention these here. We select only the chief incidents in the career of the hero, Jean Valjean.

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NEW INFORMATION NOTES

The Sterling Placer Company, of Chicago, has just constructed at its works in the suburbs of that city, a Placer Mining machine, for the separation of gold from gravel at a minimum cost in labor and of water. The machine has been constructed upon plans which are the result of long experience, and great things are expected from it. Invitations, we believe, are shortly to issue for the public test of the machine, which, if what is claimed for it be true, will prove of great service to miners and mining companies engaged in the search of the precious metal.

Indiana is developing some extraordinary growths in corn, from Russian seeds, and, as the results of experiment, the yield from these ranges from 125 to 150 bushels to the acre. But the most interesting yield is that of a farmer in Madison County, named Waggy, who, it is said, came across a quantity of seeds in a sealed jar in an ancient Indian grave. These he planted in his garden, and was soon surprised at the results. The corn, says a correspondent of the "Chicago Record," grew marvellously fast and as it developed it threw out new mysteries almost daily, until to-day the stalks are ten to twelve feet in height, and are somewhat on the order of a tree, being as thick as a man's wrist at the ground. Three feet from the ground they shoot out three long, palm-like leaves. The leaves are heavy and very solid, resembling a cactus leaf. Some of them are five feet long from tip to tip. These are the only leaves on the stalk. About two feet farther up are the ears of corn. Many stalks bear six ears and none has fewer than four ears. At this rate it is figured that the average yield to the acre would be about 250 bushels. Above the ears the stalk continues three or four feet and is topped with a very elaborate tassel. The husks surrounding the ears are very heavy, and as the corn matures they break and curl back, revealing a firm, yellow-grained ear. The grains are very solid and are exceptionally good for feeding. The roots of the plant are very long and bury themselves deep in the ground. While other corn was suffering on account of the drought this year, the prehistoric corn was green and healthy.

The power stored up in explosives has always been held to be wonderful, especially when it comes to blowing up rocks and boulders, but it seems that a man of small stature can drill a hole for blasting, set in a plug that seats itself air-tight, and then force in a dish full of water with a pump that takes but a drop at a time. There is no elasticity to granite to speak of, and soon the pressure runs up to tons upon tons, and the rocks split without so much as a groan. In coal mining this idea works to perfection, without smashing up the coal or filling the mines with smoke and dust.

An Italian named Carvello and a Frenchman named Lemieux have a scheme to establish a series of lighthouses, fifty miles apart, from New York to Havre, in France. A sailor in the mast of one vessel can see at a distance of fifty miles the masts of any vessel which may happen to be at that distance. Bearing in mind these facts, this enterprising syndicate proposes to construct from sixty to seventy-five ships, fitted with great searchlights, and station them fifty miles apart in an almost direct line across the Atlantic. But instead of moving about from place to place each is to be supplied with eight immense cables of woven steel wire, similar to those upon which hangs Brooklyn Bridge, but smaller. Three of these cables will hang from each side of the vessel and the other two from front and rear, all at angles of forty-five degrees with the ship's sides, and each will be fastened by immense anchors to the nearest ocean bottom that can be discovered by sounding. There will thus be established a straight line of stationary ships directly across the ocean and at regular intervals of probably fifty miles. These ships are of peculiar construction. Their framework consists entirely of steel tubes covered with steel netting, with quarter-inch meshes, which are filled in with concrete, rubbed smooth to diminish liquid friction.

German brain has devised an anti-noise invention, which would be a god-send to New York, one of the noisiest cities in this noisy world. It is iron felt, and Berlin and Leipsic are delighted with it. It is made of woollen materials impregnated with a patented preparation which gives it a resistance of 2,200 pounds to every square centimeter (0.3937 inch). Railroads of all kinds can use it to great advantage, for not only does it deaden sound and prevent shock, but it diminishes materially the wear and tear on the rolling stock and on the roadbed. It is placed between the rails and the sleepers. The first experiments were made by the Berlin city railroad, over which 360 trains pass each day. The results were gratifying in the highest degree. It is to be tried now on the new roads in Leipsic. It is said to be specially adapted for elevated roads.

A Berlin inventor has constructed a new street-sweeping apparatus which combines the construction of a carpet-sweeper with that of a tricycle. It is worked by one man, who can cover as much ground with this machine as four men working with brooms and shovels. Compared to the street-sweepers propelled by horses, the cost of covering a given ground is smaller; moreover, the new machines are widely superior on hygienic grounds, since the dust and sweepings are not thrown into the air, but absorbed by the machine and dropped in bulk into boxes specially provided for the purpose, which are to be sunk in the ground at different points and covered until called for during the night, when there is least traffic in the streets. The new sweepers are intended to travel through the best streets at a fair rate of speed several times a day, and the receptacle for the sweepings will hold about 40 pounds before it becomes necessary to empty it.

A national university under government control is to be established in China. The faculty will consist of foreigners, and the first president, it is said, will be a former tutor of Li Hung Chang.

The lightest substance known is said to be the pith of the sunflower, with a specific gravity of 0.028, while elder pith — hitherto recognized

as the lightest substance — has a specific gravity of 0.09, reindeer's hair 0.1, and cork 0.24. For saving appliances at sea, cork with a buoyancy of 1 to 5, or reindeer's hair with one of 1 to 10, has been used, while the pith of the sunflower has a buoyancy of 1 to 35.

Verestchagin, the Russian battle painter, will be the first recipient of the Noble prize, given by the Swedish millionaire inventor of "the king of explosives," for "the propagation of pacific ideas," as his pictures have brought out the true horrors of war. Kaiser Wilhelm calls them "the best assurance against war."

The total amount expended for pensions during the year ended July 30 last was $141,200,551, which is an increase of $1,747,761 over the previous year. Since 1865 the payments for United States pensions have aggregated $2,148,156,095.

The new illuminant (acetylene) has now a rival, to which the name of eureka gas has been given. This gas is the invention of Mr. Hector de Fazi, of Montefiascone, Italy. It is said to be obtained as follows: Lime as pure as possible is employed as a base, colophony and calcium carbide being added. One thousand parts of the mixture ready for use consists of 900 of quicklime, 50 of colophony, and 50 of calcium carbide. There is said to be no fear of explosion by mixing with air, no heating of water, and no special burner needed. One thousand parts of the mixture give 60 liters of gas at a pressure of 35 millimeters of water. The photometric intensity of the flame is stated to be 92.4 candle-hours, and the same amount of calcium carbide employed singly would only give 18 candle-hours. It is claimed that eureka gas is 50 per cent. cheaper than acetylene, or that at equal cost it will give half as much more light.

Mr. Preston, director of the U. S. Mint, says the "New Orleans Picayune," has run down the origin of the motto, "In God We Trust," to be found on our coins. It appears the first suggestion of such a motto came probably from W. R. Watkinson, of Ridleyville, Pa., who signed himself a "minister of the Gospel." His letter to Secretary Chase on the subject was dated November 13, 1861. The mottoes suggested were "Our Country; Our God," and "God Our Trust." In reply the Secretary wrote: "I approve of your mottoes, only suggesting that the first should read 'Our God and Our Country,' and that the motto on the shield should be changed so as to read instead of 'God Our Trust,' 'In God We Trust.'" In accordance with an Act passed April 22, 1864, the motto "In God We Trust," was placed on the new bronze two-cent piece. By other acts it was provided that it should be placed on certain silver and gold coins. The same act conferred upon the director of the mint the power to decide upon devices for the coins. It also changed the composition of the pieces.

The driving of light carriages by means of liquefied carbonic acid as a motive power has been often proposed, the difficulty chiefly encountered being the great absorption of heat, and consequently loss of efficiency through the refrigeration of the engine, as the liquid expands and returns to the gaseous state. The latest method brought forward for avoiding this difficulty, says the New York "Sun," is due to the ingenuity of a French inventor, M. Rassimier, his method being to press the carbonic acid through capillary tubes in a chamber heated to 248 degrees F. by petroleum or coal briquettes, the heated gas being then admitted to the engine cylinder, where it acts upon the piston, and is then led into a chamber or jacket surrounding the liquefied gas. The gaseous acid giving up the necessary heat to change the liquid acid to the gaseous form of 30 degrees C., a pressure of 75 atmospheres is finally developed. The final exhaust of the gas takes place from the jacket or chamber. The statement is, in substance, that the capillary heater insures the first expansion of the gas, while the addition of pressure through the heating of the reservoir by the exhaust gas takes place only when the engine is working.

Engineering skill is likely to play an important part at Vladivostock, a prominent Russian port and the terminus of the Siberian Railway, but where for over four months the port is blocked up with ice, rendering shipping traffic impossible. For many years the Russian authorities have been endeavoring to overcome these natural difficulties, and some time ago ice-breaking ships were introduced to break open the ice, an operation, however, which has proved practically useless. It is now reported that a certain able engineer has proposed a plan for reclaiming the narrowest part of the Tartar Strait between Saghalien and the Russian mainland. The theory of such an undertaking is that, if this is done, the cold current which enters the Japan Sea from the Arctic *via* Behring Strait will be checked, and the passage of the warmer tide, coming from the south through the Tshuma Strait, will make the water on the coast of Japan as warm as Vladivostock, and the latter will be warm all the year round. The expectation is entertained that this remarkable engineering work will be entered upon after the completion of the Siberian Railway.

Sir Isaac Holden, the inventor of the lucifer match, died recently in England at the age of ninety-one. Though he did not profit by that invention, others, especially in woollen machinery, gave him a large fortune. He set out comparatively early in life to live as long as possible. In the matter of exercise his rule was to spend at least two hours a day in the open air, and it is told of him that on first going to work in his youth, he agreed with his employer that instead of having a yearly vacation, he should have an hour every afternoon in which to take a walk.

An authority in electrical matters doubts the practical value of the wireless telegraphic experiments of Marconi and Tesla. What possibilities, the journal observes, may develop themselves in this field can only be left to conjecture and the unfolding of the future, but it seems reasonable to predict that the systems recently and widely discussed will be found to have more interest than utility. In a system of telegraphy, speed, simplicity, and solidity of the apparatus employed must be united with secrecy and certainty. These requisites are indispensable for either civil or military uses.

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The German artillery is being equipped with the latest pattern rapid-fire guns. For five years the German Government has been secretly manufacturing these guns, and nothing was known of it until a few days ago, when the first shipment was made from the Krupp Works to Strasburg. Then the matter was discovered by emissaries of the French Government. At least 4,500 guns, which fire ten shots a minute, are to be turned out. The old guns are to be kept in case of emergency. The total cost of the new ordnance is 270,000,000 marks.

A London weekly is authority for stating that paper can now be hung by machinery. The device has a rod on which a roll of paper is fixed, and a paste reservoir with a feeder placed so as to engage the wrong side of the paper. The end of the paper is fastened to the bottom of the wall, and the machine started up the wall, being held in place by the operator. A roller follows the paper as it unwinds and presses it against the wall. When the top of the wall is reached, the operator pulls a string, which cuts the paper off from the roll.

In 1791 it required 16,100 pounds of coal to produce one ton of pig iron. In 1870 the same quantity of pig iron was produced with 5,000 pounds of coal, and in 1896 the quantity was reduced to 3,000 pounds. A blast furnace produced 80 tons of pig iron per week in 1791, 137 tons in 1870, 1,860 tons in 1890. These figures are given by the President of the British Iron and Steel Institute. He apparently has not heard of the new furnaces at Duquesne, Pa. Their capacity is 4,200 tons per week.

Besides adopting nickel steel for armor the Japanese are using it with excellent results for crank propeller shafts, connecting rods, and other forgings. It is claimed that it can be worked and welded without any special care on the part of the artisan, and is metal that will enable the sheathings of iron vessels to be reduced, and will reduce the weight of the boilers and of the propeller shafts with perfect reliability as to strength, elasticity and non-corrosion.

By direction of Congress, the Department of Agriculture is investigating the character and extent of the adulteration of foods and drugs. It is generally believed that adulteration, sophistication, imitation, and misbranding of foods, drugs, and liquors exist to a very great extent. Many of the States have enacted laws to prevent such practices, and it is desirable to know how these laws have been enforced, and with what results. The Department desires a concise statement of facts respecting adulteration, which can be fully substantiated if necessary, and not theories.

A military attaché of the British Embassy at St. Petersburg, has recently returned from a 4,000-mile sleigh ride in mid-winter from St. Petersburg to Vladivostock, on the Northern Pacific Ocean. He gives an emphatic denial of the stories told of Siberian horrors. During the whole journey, he affirms, he saw nothing to justify the startling tales related on the subject, and says that in the depth of the Russian winter, with 90 degrees of frost, he found the exiles travelling in comfort, smoking and singing, and in every case well clothed and well fed. Any prisoner falling lame or ill is placed in a carriage and driven to the nearest hospital. In a majority of cases, the attaché asserts, the Siberian exile is better off than if at home, and he adds that political prisoners, unless they have committed a serious, non-political crime, are not imprisoned, their heads are not shaved, and they are not fettered. Even the Poles, exiled for taking part in insurrections, are now, according to this authority (Colonel Waters), in many cases free to return to Russia, and several of them are employed as Government officials.

An international motor car race from London to Birmingham was recently arranged for by the proprietors of "The Engineer," who offered prizes amounting to 1,100 guineas. About fifty motor cars took part in the contest, and the conditions required that they should complete the race, which began and ended at the Crystal Palace, within forty hours, the distance being about 115 miles. The vehicles were divided into four classes and one supplemental class, for which the following prizes were awarded:

First — Three hundred and fifty guineas for the best mechanically propelled vehicle constructed to carry, including a driver, four or more persons, the total weight when fully loaded not to exceed two tons.

Second — Two hundred and fifty guineas for the best mechanically propelled vehicle constructed to carry either one, two or three persons, the total weight not to exceed one ton.

Third — Two hundred and fifty guineas for the best mechanically propelled vehicle constructed to carry, in addition to the driver, not more than one ton of goods or parcels, the total weight when fully loaded not to exceed two tons.

Fourth (Supplemental) — One hundred and fifty guineas for the best mechanically propelled vehicle, constructed to carry, in addition to the driver, five hundred pounds of goods or parcels, the weight when fully loaded not to exceed one ton; and 100 guineas for the best vehicle, whether for passengers or goods, propelled solely by a motor impelled by the vapor of oil or spirit, having a lower specific gravity than 0.8, or a flashing point lower than 73 degrees Fahrenheit, Abel's test.

According to English exchanges, the Frost-proof Water Pipe Syndicate, of Birmingham, has been formed to put on the market a water pipe for services that will not burst when the water in it is frozen. Samples of the pipe can be had, and those portions of the pipe that were artificially frozen, after being filled with water and hermetically sealed, showed no signs of leakage when tested afterward under heavy pressure.

The cheapness of coal production in West Virginia is reported to be almost incredible. It is said to be a common sight in Charleston of that State to see negroes, who own horses and wagons, peddling coal in the streets at the rate of from 50 to 60 cents a load. These retailers are in the habit of going a few miles outside of the city limits, digging a hole in a sidehill, shoveling the coal into the wagons without saying "by your leave" to anyone, and then selling it for what they can get.

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THE WORLD OF THOUGHT:

ABOUT BOOKS AND THEIR AUTHORS

"This Country of Ours"

Ex-President Harrison has done excellent service in issuing under the happy title of "This Country of Ours"* a very useful manual on the machinery of our Government. The book consists of an expanded series of papers contributed to a contemporary, setting popularly before the reader an intelligent and authoritative account of the duties of the Executive, the Cabinet, the Senate, the House of Representatives, and other practical machinery of United States administration and government. Theoretically, every American is supposed to know most things that ex-President Harrison here sets forth; but, practically, how little is accurately and intelligently known of the workings of our Constitution, save by the special students, jurists and other interpreters of it, and by those who professionally have to do with its workings. For the latter classes there are the legal text-books and the more or less elaborate treatises of De Tocqueville, Story, Curtis, and Bryce; but for the citizen and ordinary reader there is peculiar fitness in just such a popular survey of how we are governed as General Harrison has furnished, and the book is therefore to be welcomed and read with attention and interest. The author comes to his task admirably equipped for the work he has undertaken, and no reader of it will be disappointed in its study; while there is not a little entertainment in some of the chapters that deal with the social as well as with the political workings of the system under which we live. Some excellent counsel is also given in the work to the ever-increasing throng of the office-seekers, who are always ready, for a consideration, to sacrifice themselves on the altar of national duty. To this persistent class, General Harrison says, that

> "there are few, if any, offices at Washington the salaries of which enable the incumbent to save any money, and the average experience of those holding places in the departments is, if they would express it, that private business offers better returns and gives a better chance for advancement. The Civil Service law has given a measure of security to the department clerk, but even with this protection there is a sense of insecurity and dependence which is not found in private pursuits."

The advice is timely, and the professional office-seekers, instead of buttonholing members of the Legislature, would do well to pay heed to it.

Professor Pattee's American Literature

The number of text-books on American literature which have issued of late from the press afford gratifying evidence of the increasing attention now paid to native Letters. Aside from the patriotism involved in the study of the subject, the native literature has come to be recognized as a means of varied intellectual culture, while in the writings of so many authors in wide fields of literary activity there is much instruction as well as interest and entertainment. Of the recently issued manuals the one before us by Professor F. L. Pattee,* of the State College, Penn., has many and positive merits. It does not, of course, aim at supplying an exhaustive survey or anything more than a useful handbook to the native authors, and that of a character which is perhaps more directive than critical. But within the scope and limits of the book, the author has skilfully compressed an admirable statement of who the native writers are and what they have achieved, with a brief and manifestly candid estimate of the character of their work. The critical part is done with judgment, and with that skill which comes of ample knowledge and full sympathy with the writers represented. On the whole, it is a welcome addition to the available materials existing in our modern manuals touching the works and merits of our best writers. The arrangement of the book is good, and the list is adequate of required and suggested reading of the authors criticized.

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* "This Country of Ours." By Benjamin Harrison, ex-President of the United States. 8vo. pp. 360. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1897.

* History of American Literature, with a view to the Fundamental Principles underlying its Development, by Fred Lewis Pattee, Professor of English and Rhetoric in the Pennsylvania State College. New York, Boston and Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1897.

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Stage Magic—Illusions and Delusions

In a large octavo volume, profusely illustrated, the New York publishers of that useful weekly, the "Scientific American," have issued a most curious and interesting treatise on the Mechanism of Magic,* which traverses almost the entire world of the prestidigitateur's art. Many catch-penny manuals of the so-called black arts, ignorantly ascribed to sorcery, have been issued from time to time to tickle the credulous fancy; but nothing that we have seen has appeared of the extensive scope and character of the present book. The work has been compiled with the object of giving a scientific yet popular explanation of stage tricks, illusions, and other phenomena embraced under the term legerdemain. An entertaining introduction is prefixed, dealing briefly with the historical aspects of the art of magic, with biographical facts concerning its ancient and modern professors, including among the latter, Houdin, Blitz, Heller, and Carl and Alexander Herrmann.

The work is divided into sections, one of which treats of Ancient Magic, including an account of the Temple tricks and miraculous Vessels of the Greeks, and an explanation of optical delusions such as the decapitated drinking horse, the mechanical construction of Greek toys, etc. Another deals with Automata and Curious Toys; still another with Photographic Diversions, including trick photography, moving pictures, familiar to those who have seen the cinematograph, and other modern scientific puzzles. A further section is devoted to Conjurers' tricks and Stage illusions, to Shadowgraphy, Animated Puppets, Jugglers' and Acrobatic Performances; and Mental Magic, including thought transference and second sight. Finally are added explanations of the ingenious contrivances and seeming mysteries adopted in theatres for stage effects, trap-door disappearances, including the mechanics of revolving stages in theatres, and devices for the exhibiting of electric and fan-drop curtains, and other spectacular machinery. All these sections, with their subordinate chapters, contrive to let the reader and the hitherto mystified spectator behind the scenes and observe for himself how the wonderful things are done, and how the machinery works that produces them. Substantial aid is given to their lucidation by means of the accompanying illustrations.

Those accustomed to marvel at an exhibition by some clever wizard of the time will, after a study of this book, perhaps, be ashamed at their credulousness when they have looked on at conjurers' tricks and sleight of hand. We, ourselves, have felt something of the same feeling after reading the account here given of what seemed to us, at the time we witnessed the performance, anything but deception. There is, however, room yet to marvel, even when we have learned how the tricks are done, for their ingenuity is great, and the methods laborious and often elaborate and costly, by which they are accomplished. Some of the tricks, though they seem to lose much by being explained in the book, require marvellous deftness of hand and daring ingenuity, and hence still elicit our wonder. The advance of science in these later years has helped the skilled conjurer in no little degree, though acquaintance with science on the part of the spectator, has put him often on a level with the exhibitor or performer, and so has taken from the feats much of their mystery. Withal that, there is left a large and curious field for the conjurer's exploitation, as we glean from the interesting pages of the book.

A work such as this, as a critic has said, "is useful to preserve faith in the constant operation of the laws of nature and unfaltering disbelief in the existence of anything extra-natural." It would seem necessary to say this when one reflects how the world has been imposed upon, and not only in what we call the dark ages of superstition, by occultism, cabalistic mummeries and general *diablerie*.

G. M. A.

* Magic: Stage Illusions and Scientific Diversions, including Trick Photography. Compiled and edited by Albert A. Hopkins. With an introduction by Henry Ridgely Evans. With four hundred illustrations. Octavo, pp. xii, 556. Munn & Co., New York, 1897.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Christian Missions and Social Progress: A Sociological Study of Foreign Missions. By the Rev. James Dennis, D.D., Students' Lecturer on Missions, Princeton, 1893 and 1896, etc., etc. In two volumes, Vol. I, Fleming H. Revell Co., New York and Chicago, 1897

Voices of Doubt and Trust. Selected by Volney Streamer. 16mo., New York: Brentano's.

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DIVERSIONS AND STUDIES FOR YOUNG PEOPLE:

POSTAGE STAMPS AND THEIR COLLECTION

THOUSANDS of people, young and old, now find pleasure and profit in stamp collecting, a pursuit which extends year by year, the price of genuine specimens of early stamps rising continually with the demand. There are now, says a writer in "Chambers's Journal," about fifty dealers in stamps in London alone, and the collector may be found everywhere. One dealer in the Strand estimates the value of his stock at over £60,000; and last year he sold upwards of a hundred thousand stamps, while he examines from five to ten thousand every day. The varied uses to which stamps are put may be judged from the fact that a customer bought 20,000,000 of the commoner sorts, for papering walls of houses and public buildings. It is estimated that there are 500,000 stamp collectors in the United States, the C. H. Mekeel Stamp and Publishing Co., of St. Louis, employing alone about one hundred and thirty persons in the conduct of a very large business. Sensational prices are given for rare stamps. American local varieties bring from £250 to £500; one of Livingston, Alabama, has sold for £140. One of the ten specimens of the Brattleboro stamp has sold for £250; the twenty cent St. Louis (1845) for about £500; a pair of post-office, Mauritius, are worth £600 (two have been sold for £870); and a set of the five British Guiana, first issue of 1850, will fetch £1000. An unused Transvaal stamp with error 'Transoral' has sold for £50. One of the most valuable English stamps is the ninepenny straw-colored Queen's head with hair-line of 1862, which is worth £30.

Amongst valuable collections is that of Ferrari, of Paris, which is said to be worth £250,000. That of the Duke of York is worth between £30,000 and £40,000; Rothschild, about £100,000; and that of the late Czar of Russia, £150,000. The collection which Mr. Tapling left to the British Museum was worth £70,000. There are now collections in the Berlin Imperial Museum, also at Amsterdam, Vienna, and Dresden.

Some of the first collectors began before the days of adhesive stamps by cutting out the old newspaper stamp, and placing it in copy books, with crests, book-prints, and similar curiosities. A Belgian schoolmaster is credited by some with being the founder of Philately. About forty years ago he is said to have tried to make geography more interesting by getting his pupils to adorn their atlases with stamps belonging to the different countries. Others give Mr. Palmer, of the Strand, London, the credit of being the father of Philately in England. The French collectors soon began to see the necessity of classification, and there is no difference of opinion as to the educational value of a knowledge of the features of the many rulers which usually adorn foreign stamps. Some of these rulers have died; some have been murdered or removed by revolutions.

In this way have been preserved interesting portraits of Juarez, and of Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico, and of Lincoln and Garfield, Presidents of the United States, as well as the late Shah of Persia. The Don Carlos stamps of 1873–75 record a futile insurrection; while the change from Alfonso XII., of Spain, to the Regency is plainly read on the stamps. As the young Queen of Holland has objected to be represented upon the national postage stamps any longer as a mere child, a new set of Dutch stamps is announced. An Argentine commemorative stamp used for one day only — October 12, 1892 — commemorates the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492. Venezuela has a commemorative stamp also for the date when Columbus first stood on the mainland of America, while the United States has a centennial commemorative stamp of her Independence, issued in 1876. Some valuable lessons in history and geography are thus to be gained, and the whereabouts of many an obscure island or state may be fixed in the memory, along with the changes in government, from the study of a good collection of stamps.

As the number of postage stamps which can be collected is increasing every day, the knowledge required to prevent unwary collectors being defrauded increases in an equal degree. The various South American republics, with a depreciated currency,

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are continually emitting new issues of postage stamps which are sold in large batches to certain dealers for the purpose of being retailed out to collectors. The debased currency of many States makes the face value of these stamps considerably more than their cost if bought from the government of the country issuing them. The dealers, however, make no reduction for this depreciation, and stamps which were never intended to be used for the purpose of franking letters through the post are sold at and above their face value to unsuspecting collectors. In some cases a defacing stamp is obtained and applied to the stamps, so as to make it appear that they have done duty through the post. Some of the treaty ports in China have been exploited in the same way, and stamps apparently duly post-marked are sold in the original sheets in large quantities. There was a bogus issue, also, of six stamps purporting to belong to a state called Sedang, but the whole thing was a fraud, there being no such state in existence.

In the case of Bolivar a new set of newspaper stamps was supposed to have been issued in 1892. These were bought up by the dealers and catalogued at 82s. the set. Investigation was made into their genuineness, with the result that it was discovered beyond doubt that no such stamps had ever been issued in Bolivar, and we understand the dealers were compelled to return the money obtained for them to their customers, and that the original dealers who sold them to the retailers had also to disgorge their receipts on account of them. For every stamp used in Cook Islands for postal purposes, it appears that one hundred or two hundred are despatched to the stamp collectors. One Indian native state has issued three hundred and sixty varieties of postage stamps, post-cards, and stamped envelopes between 1877 and 1894. These were certainly never all meant for postal use.

With reference to forged stamps, it may be as well to remind collectors of the clause in the English Post-office Protection Act, which enacts a penalty against any one, who utters, deals in, or sells fictitious stamps, or knowingly uses for any postal purpose any fictitious stamp, or makes any die or plate for the printing of such a stamp. This section has a wide sweep, and includes both foreign and colonial stamps, and the dies for producing them.

Three years ago the London "Times" drew attention to the subject of surcharged stamps in a lengthy article. Lord Ripon had caused a circular to be sent from the Colonial Office in order to put down the abuses connected with the sale of "surcharged stamps," which had proved a temptation to postmasters and treasurers, and other public officers, by making irregular profits in dealing with stamp collectors and others. The remedy for this state of matters is to keep a sufficient supply of stamps on hand, and then there would be no necessity to practice "surcharging." It appears that when in certain cases it became known that a stamp was getting scarce, agents of the stamp-dealer would at once buy up the stock and ask for more. The Colonial Post-office, in order to get over the delay involved in procuring fresh supplies, would print on dearer stamps than those which were exhausted the price of those which were asked for. For instance, a threepenny stamp becomes a halfpenny one, and a fourpenny stamp a twopenny one. A stamp thus altered in value is said to be "surcharged," and a rush is made for this by the dealer. These find their way into collections at 50 or 100 per cent. over their value. A Paris dealer is said to have kept a sum of £1000 "placed" at different postoffices, with instructions to local post-masters to send on specimens to that value whenever a new stamp or a fresh surcharge was made. A London dealer one day received a remittance for 12s. 6d. in halfpenny postage stamps from some one in Fiji who was in debt to him for that amount. The stamps, being all surcharged, were sold for about £15.

It will be remembered that the Republic of Liberia, on the west coast of Africa, not having ready cash to pay the expenses of its delegate to the Chicago Exhibition, gave him a supply of postage stamps to sell to the best advantage. It appears that this negro republic depends largely on the sale of stamps for paying its way, and the stamps, beautifully engraved in London, are largely sold to stamp collectors. When the North Borneo Company issued a finely engraved stamp in 1894, in six weeks the wholesale dealers turned over £2,000 worth of them. One dealer went in for £800

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worth, another £400, and two for £1200 between them.

Important public events sometimes leave their record on postage stamps. The British Post-office refused to sell stamps got up in connection with the Queen's Diamond Jubilee in furtherance of the objects of the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund. The bookseller was the medium for the sale of these 1s. and 2s. 6d. stamps, of which the issue was limited. The well-known picture of "Charity," by Sir Joshua Reynolds, forms the basis of the design. The copperplates were destroyed when the impression was completed. There was a rush for the Canadian Jubilee postage stamps. The government at first decided only to present three sets, the recipients being the Duke of York, Duke of Norfolk, and Lady Aberdeen. There were new issues of French stamps in connection with the visit of the Czar to Paris and the opening of the Brussels Exhibition. It may be added that there is now a society for the suppression of speculative stamps.

Mr. Firth, in his "Postage Stamps and their Collection" (Upcott Gill), recommends the beginner, if collecting for pleasure, to attend to stamps of countries hitherto much neglected, also 2½d. stamps of all countries in the Postal Union, with post-cards and envelopes. He also recommends a collection of all the halfpenny, penny, sixpenny, and shilling stamps of England and the Colonies. Stanley Gibbons's blank stamp album, and Whitfield, King & Co.'s interchangeable stamp album will be found useful. Mr. Firth's motto in collecting envelopes is to get the "envelope, the whole envelope, and nothing but the envelope." Experience will alone make the collector a critic of used and unused stamps, of design, paper, gum, and perforation, and other features which give character and value to a collection.

A very considerable bibliography has grown up around the subject. There is the catalogue of Calman and Collin, published by the Scott Stamp and Coin Co., New York; Millington and Lockyer's "Postage Stamps of the British Empire;" "The Philatelic Handbook" and "Stamps and Stamp Collecting," by Major Evans; Philbrick and Westoby's "Postage and Telegraph Stamps of Great Britain" (new edition 1897); while there are and have been many journals, such as "Stamp Collectors' Magazine," "Philatelist," and "Philatelic Record." America has, amongst others, the "Stamp Collectors' Bureau" and the "American Journal of Philately."

* * *

High prices continue to rule in the sale of rare postage stamps. The following are the prices realized at an auction in London the other week for some rare issues: Naples, ½ tornese blue "cross," £4 4s.; Basle, 2½ rappen, cut close, £3 6s.; Hong-kong, 18c. lilac, unused, £4; Gambia 6d. blue, strip of five, £5 10s.; New Brunswick, 3d., unused, £3 12s 6d.; ditto, 1s., mauve, damaged, £6; Newfoundland, 6½d.; carmine, unused, £10 10s.; Nova Scotia, 1s., violet, cut close, £8 5s.; Dominica, 1s., violet, unused, £3 5s.; Nevis, 1s., blue-green, unused, £3 5s.; St. Vincent, 4d., blue, unused, £3 15s.; Virgin Islands, 1s., carmine, unused, £3 10s.; ditto, 1s., crimson, an unused sheet, £15.

SOME NOTES ON THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA (Concluded)

OJEDA reached the continent about two hundred leagues south of the Gulf of Paria, and, having followed the coast for some distance towards the northwest, returned to Spain. Two years later Vespucci made a second voyage, in the service of the King of Portugal, and explored this newly-discovered continent down to the 52nd degree of south latitude. On his return to Europe he gave an account of these voyages, in a letter addressed to one of his countrymen, which was published and appears to have been the first account of the New World generally accessible to geographers. Some years afterwards there appeared a much fuller account of *four* voyages made by Vespucci, and so worded, whether through carelessness or by design, as to leave the impression that Vespucci had himself discovered the continent which he described.

Voyages of Vespucci

It is remarkable that in neither of these accounts does Vespucci make mention either of Columbus or of Ojeda, but leaves the reader to infer that he was himself in every case the commander-in-

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chief of the expedition; and yet, though a thorough search has been made of the archives, both of Spain and Portugal, no mention of the name of Vespucci in connection with any such expeditions has been brought to light. Furthermore, in his second account, Vespucci puts his first voyage in 1497, so that, if this account is true, he discovered the coast of Paria one year before it was visited by Columbus. But it is the general opinion of historians now that this account is not true, or that, at any rate, the date is wrong.

This whole matter of Vespucci's pretended voyages has been a subject of endless research and discussion among historians, and perhaps the truth will never be known. The most probable view is that he did make two voyages, though in both instances he went in a subordinate capacity, and that the two other voyages described belong to the realm of romance.

The name America, first proposed for this newly-discovered continent by Waldseemüller, in 1507, appears for the first time upon a map published anonymously at Strasburg, in 1509. In 1514 a map of the world was prepared and published by Leonardo da Vinci, which has the name America written across the South American continent. The name does not seem, however, to have come into general use until about the middle of the sixteenth century, although it is occasionally met with before that time. It is not used by Peter Martyr, nor, indeed, by any of the early Spanish writers, who designate the newly-discovered countries, as a whole, by the name *Novus Mundus*, or New World.

The earliest use of the name America was restricted to that part of the South American continent which later was named, from the dye-wood obtained there, Brazil. But before the close of the century, the use of the name was extended to cover the entire continent, including Brazilia, Paria, etc., and it was finally applied by map-makers to the northern continent also.

The Cabots

But neither Columbus nor Vespucci was the first to reach the main land of America. This honor belongs to John Cabot, a Venetian, who for some years had been settled in England, engaged in mercantile pursuits. In the month of May, 1497, John Cabot, accompanied by his son Sebastian, then a youth of about twenty years of age, sailed from the Port of Bristol, England, in the ship *Matthew*, bound for "the territories of the Grand Khan and a market." The Cabots sailed under a permit of Henry VII., the enterprise being a private venture. In the following month they reached some part of the continent of North America, probably Labrador. This was more than a year before Columbus entered the mouth of the Orinoco.

A notice of this voyage is found in a letter written soon after Cabot's return to England, by one of his countrymen, in which it is said: "He discovered land, the territory of the Grand Khan; he coasted along it for three hundred leagues and landed; saw no human beings, but brought hither to the King certain snares which had been set to catch game, and a needle for making nets. He also found some felled trees, wherefore he supposed there were inhabitants and returned to his ship in alarm." The writer adds: "He is styled the Great Admiral, and vast honor is paid him; he dresses in silk, and these English run after him like mad people."

This is about all that is known of John Cabot and his voyage. It is probable that he died shortly afterwards. At any rate, when in the following spring a second expedition, consisting of two vessels, sailed to resume the exploration of this coast, his son Sebastian was in command of it, and we hear no more of the father.

Sebastian Cabot had the same object in view as his father — the discovery of a new route to the Indies. He explored the American coast from a high northern latitude, as far south, probably, as what is now North Carolina, entering, we may suppose, all of the large bays and inlets, in the hope of finding a passage to the Indian Ocean. At length, his provisions running short, he abandoned the search and sailed away for England. The country thus discovered and explored was called New-found-land, a name finally restricted to the island, which still bears it. Although at the time these voyages were probably regarded as failures, England afterwards based upon them claims to a large territory in the New World.

GEO. SENECA JONES.

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ANIMAL LIFE IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS

AMONG Arctic animal life the reindeer deserves a prominent place, since it is the most useful of all animals to the inhabitants of these desolate lands. It has been called the camel of the North, and can draw the Ostiak, the Samoyede, and the Syriane over tracts of land where no other animal could live. It is the only kind of deer that man has been able to train to be of use to him. Its feet, which are specially broad, enable it to walk over the snow just as the camel can walk over the sands of the desert. Besides being specially adapted for traversing the snow, it has another recommendation as a transport animal. This is found in the fact that little provision need be made for its provender. Endowed with a marvellous instinct, it seems to know where lichens and mosses are to be found, although deeply covered with snow; and these it gets at by scraping. Many stories have been told of the great distances reindeer can cover, even when drawing sledges after them, within a single day. Thus it has been asserted that they can change the horizon thrice within twenty-four hours, and that a Laplander may travel in his sledge with a couple of reindeer 112 miles in a day. As a rule peaceful and quiet, they yet resent ill-treatment, and woe betide the Ostiak or Lapp who beats his reindeer or attempts to make him bear a heavier load than he is able to carry.

But not only is the reindeer a good friend to man when alive; after death he is also turned to good account. His skin is used for clothes and bedding, as well as for tents — that of the new-born reindeer being prepared and sent to St. Petersburg to be manufactured into gloves, which are very expensive; his flesh is eaten, the tongue and the marrow being considered great delicacies; and even his horns and bones are used for making spoons and knives by the inhabitants of these northern regions.

Among other denizens of Northern Siberia is the wolverine or glutton, the Arctic fox, the lemming or Arctic rat, the sable, and the ermine. The first mentioned of these is an animal which belongs to the weasel type, and which in size is not unlike a big badger. It is one of the fiercest and greediest of animals, and is the greatest enemy of the reindeer. Stories are told of the way in which the glutton attacks his prey. Being an admirable climber, he is said to climb into some tree, carrying along with him some moss. Here he will wait until the reindeer pass in the vicinity, when he cunningly drops the moss, to which the reindeer is very partial. Attracted in this way, the reindeer, all unsuspecting, approaches the tree, when the wolverine springs on his back, and soon makes an end of his hapless prey. The glutton is said not to eat the flesh of the reindeer, but to suck his blood, in the same way as the weasel does with his prey. As he is a notorious robber of the hunters' traps, he is heartily hated by the latter.

Another notorious thief is the Arctic fox, a pretty little creature with long, white fur and a bushy tail. Of the thieving propensities of this cunning little animal Arctic explorers have told many tales, the latest of which are related by Dr. Nansen in his "Farthest North." They have been known to steal watches from under the heads of sleeping sailors, and pull off their caps, and even to rifle their pockets. Dr. Nansen, it will be remembered, came across Arctic foxes on several occasions in very high latitudes, and apparently far from land, on the ice of the Polar Sea. How they managed to find food under such circumstances is a mystery. They are said to burrow in the snow to protect themselves from the cold, and to live chiefly on lemmings or Arctic rats. Among the doubtful stories told about them is the mode in which they cross large tracts of water. According to such tales, they embark on floating trees, and, spreading out their tails as sails, are blown before the wind.

The most valuable of fur-bearing animals is the sable — an animal, however, which is gradually being exterminated. Little less valuable than the sable is the ermine, an animal which resembles in its appearance the weasel. Another animal which is much prized for its skin is the kalan or sea otter. It is larger than the common otter, and grows sometimes to a length of four or more feet. In habits it resembles the seal, and is an extremely cunning animal.

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THE SCIENCE OF FAMILIAR THINGS:

VII.—MACHINES, MECHANICAL ADVANTAGE

ANY appliance or device by means of which force may be used to overcome resistance, that is, to do work, is a machine. Machines are of two classes (1) those which are used merely for transmitting or modifying force, as the pulley, the wheel, and axle, (2) those which are used for transforming energy—for pressing into service various forces which cannot be used in the forms in which Nature supplies them, as the water-wheel, the steam-engine, etc. At present we will consider only machines of the first class.

The Mechanical Powers

However complicated in construction a machine may be, it can always be resolved into a greater or less number of simple devices, which, considered separately, are known as the *Mechanical Powers*. As they are usually enumerated, the Mechanical Powers are the lever, wheel, and axle, inclined plane, screw, pulley and knee or toggle joint. By the use of these devices two principal advantages may be gained. In the first place, a machine may enable us to apply force in a direction that is more convenient than the direction in which the resistance is to be overcome, as when a bent lever is used to change a horizontal into an up-and-down movement, or a weight is raised by means of a pulley and rope. This use of machines is so familiar and so easily understood that we need spend no time with it here. Secondly, a machine may enable us to overcome a great resistance with a small force and thus to do work which, without its aid, would be impracticable. This use of a machine gives us what is called *mechanical advantage*, and since the nature of this advantage is often imperfectly understood, we will make it the subject of a little investigation.

The Lever Experiment

Suspend a two-foot wooden ruler by means of a string tied about its centre. If its two ends are equal in weight, the ruler will come to rest in a horizontal position. If it does not, paste bits of paper to the lighter end until a horizontal position is secured.

Attach an ounce weight to each end of the suspended ruler. It still maintains its horizontal position. Each weight pulls downward at its end of the lever, and the force transmitted through the lever becomes an upward pull at the other end; but since the forces are equal they balance each other and neither does work. Remove one of the weights and supply its place by pressing upon the end of the ruler with a finger. To keep the ruler in its horizontal position, you must apply the same force, in a downward direction, as would be required, exerted in the opposite direction, to sustain upon the finger an ounce weight. Press a little harder, and your end of the ruler descends, while the other end, with the weight attached, rises. You are exerting the same force as would be required to lift an ounce weight with the same quickness. This lever, then, of which the two arms have the same length, gives you no mechanical advantage. It merely reverses the direction in which the force which you exert acts.

Now attach to one end of the ruler at a distance of one inch from the point of suspension a half-pound weight, and balance it with an ounce weight attached to the other end. It will be found that in order to do this the small weight must be attached at a distance of eight inches from the point of suspension. If you continue to experiment, shifting the position of the half-pound weight or using in its stead other weights, heavier or lighter, it will be found that in every case when the two weights balance each other the smaller is farther from the point of suspension than the larger in the same ratio as its weight is less. If it is one half as large, then it must be twice as far from that point; if one tenth as large, then ten times as far; and so of any other relation between the sizes of the two weights.

In this experiment the portion of the ruler which extends beyond the weights at each end may be left out of consideration, and we may regard as our lever only the part which lies between the weights. Calling the portions of the lever which extend from the point of suspension—the "fulcrum," as the

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point of support about which a lever turns is called — to the two weights, respectively, the arms of the lever, we may state the result of our experiment thus:—

Two forces may be made to balance each other by means of a lever by making the arms of the lever proportional in length to the intensities of the two forces and applying the smaller at the end of the longer, the larger at the end of the shorter arm.

Note.—All that is designed here is to present the principle of the lever, and it has not been thought necessary to discuss the various forms of levers. It may be well to say, however, that whatever may be the form of a lever and whatever its position, the measure of its arms should always be taken in directions at right angles with those of the forces. Thus, the leverage of a crank changes with the change of the position of the crank. The effective length of a crank is the length of a line drawn from its centre of motion perpendicular to a line drawn through the centre of the crank-pin in the direction in which the force acts. It ranges between the full length of the crank and zero.

Mechanical Advantage

Thus far we have considered the lever only as a device by means of which two forces, equal or unequal, may be made to balance each other. We will now consider it as a machine for doing work, and we will inquire into the nature of the advantage derived from its use.

In our experiment with a half-pound weight we found that this weight could be balanced with an ounce weight placed eight times as far as it from the lever's fulcrum. If, repeating this experiment, we substitute for the small weight the pressure of a finger, the force required to preserve the balance will, of course, be the same as would be required to sustain (without lifting) an ounce weight. By adding a trifle more of force we may cause this end of the lever to descend, while the other end, with the half-pound weight attached, rises. That is to say, this lever will enable us to raise a half-pound weight with the expenditure of only a trifle more than one ounce of force.

There is certainly advantage here — advantage which shows itself in a very practical way when we have heavy bodies to raise; but let us look into the circumstances of this gain of power. When we examine the case we perceive that, while we have raised our half-pound weight, we have raised it to but a very short distance. A depression of the end of the long arm of the lever to a distance, say, of two inches raises the other end of the lever only one-quarter of an inch, or one-eighth as far as the finger moves, as may easily be shown by representing this lever in a diagram. The two ends of the lever move simultaneously, and the weight therefore takes the same time to rise one-quarter of an inch as our finger does to descend two inches. This means that we have raised this half-pound weight only one-eighth as fast as we could have raised an ounce weight with the same effort. What we have gained in power we have lost in speed, and there is no gain in the work done.

Mechanical advantage resolves itself, then, into a mere matter of convenience. It is convenient and, indeed, it is sometimes necessary to increase the intensity of a force at our command in order to accomplish certain work; but we can increase the intensity of a force only by diminishing the speed with which it acts. This is a principle which runs through the whole length and breadth of mechanics; it contains the secret of the advantage afforded by every one of the Mechanical Powers. In every one of these the gain in power is accompanied by a corresponding loss of speed.

The Wheel and Axle

Without going through the whole list of these Powers, we will illustrate the principle just enunciated, that power can be gained only by the sacrifice of speed, by examining one other simple machine — the wheel and axle. A good example of the wheel and axle is the ship's capstan. Let us see how it works.

The crew of a ship are engaged in "warping" the ship into her "berth" alongside a wharf. A hawser is made fast to the wharf and passes with two or three turns about the capstan. The diameter of the capstan is one and a half feet. The bars used in turning it are six feet in length, reckoning from the centre of the capstan. One turn of the capstan will haul the ship a little more than four and a half feet; that is, it will haul the ship a distance equal to the circumference of the capstan. To give the capstan one turn, the sailors must walk about thirty-eight feet — the length of the circumference of a circle with a diameter of twelve feet. The ship therefore moves only one-eighth as fast as they themselves move. The case is pre-

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cisely the same as that of the lever just examined — a small force has been intensified, but only at the expense of speed. To draw this ship through the water at a certain rate of speed a certain force is requisite — the force of a hundred men, we will say. This is more men than the crew contains; but twelve men working eight times as fast can, by means of the capstan, accomplish the same result.

After this showing the reader will have no difficulty in perceiving this principle at the bottom of the other Mechanical Powers. In the Inclined Plane, an example of which is a plank used for rolling a heavy barrel from the ground into a wagon, the advantage is obtained by increasing the distance to which the weight is moved in rising to a given height. The weight is lifted slowly, as when a weight is pried up with a lever and the same advantage is secured. So, too, when a heavy weight is raised by means of a "tackle and falls." Suppose that there are two blocks in the tackle, each having two pulleys. The rope which is rove through the blocks is divided into four sections. The weight raised is, we will say, a barrel of flour, weighing two hundred pounds. The strain exerted on each of the four ropes which sustains it will be fifty pounds. A man pulling at the free end of the rope needs, therefore, to exert a force of only fifty pounds in order to raise the barrel. But, as an offset to this advantage, he must pull four times as much rope and consequently must take four times as long at the work as he would need to do to raise a fifty-pound weight to the same height by means of a single pulley.

Gain of Speed

An increase of power is not the only advantage which may be gained by mechanical means. It quite as often happens that we wish an increase of speed as an increase of power. A wood lathe or a "buzz saw" must be run rapidly in order to do its work well. It must be "geared up," as machinists say. In these cases there is a loss of power which, leaving friction entirely out of the account, is exactly proportional to the increase of speed. The faster the lathe runs, the more force is required to run it, and if the available force is limited, there is a limit to the speed with which it can be run effectively, since the faster it turns the less powerful it is.

The results of our inquiry may be summed up in the following simple memorandum:—

If, with a given force at our command, we wish for power, we must be content to sacrifice speed; if we wish for speed, we must sacrifice power. No mechanical contrivance will enable us to secure both advantages at the same time.

ANSWERS TO PROBLEMS (See page 572, Vol. V.)

1. In the first case the resultant is 72.1 pounds; in the second case, 92.7 pounds.

2. This problem was solved both by means of a diagram and by trigonometry. Two lines having been drawn from a point A in the directions in which the ropes sloped, as determined from the conditions of the problem, a perpendicular was erected at A, three inches in length, to represent on a scale of 50 pounds to the inch a force of 150 pounds, and a parallelogram was constructed, of which this line was a diagonal, by drawing from its upper end two lines parallel with the first two. One of the sides of this parallelogram was found to measure $4\frac{17}{64}$ inches; the other, $4\frac{44}{64}$ inches. These numbers multiplied by 50 gave the answers 213.3 pounds for one of the required forces, and 227.3 for the other, the greater strain being on the rope which was attached at the higher point. To do this work took ten minutes. To solve the problem mathematically took nearly an hour. The answers obtained from the second solution were 214.3 and 227.5. The gain in accuracy was not worth the extra time required for obtaining it, a fairly close approximation to a correct solution usually in any practical problem of this sort answering every purpose.

3. Since the roof is inclined the snow has a tendency to slide, and only a part of its weight must be sustained by the rafters. Draw a line sloping upward at at angle of 30 degrees to represent the roof, and from a point A in this line erect a perpendicular A B five inches in length, to stand for a force of 500 pounds acting directly downward. From the same point A draw a third line in an upward direction at right angles with

the first — the roof line. Construct a parallelogram by drawing from the upper end of A B two lines parallel with the first and third, marking the point at which one of these lines cuts the first line C and the point at which the other cuts the third line D. The line D A represents the direction and intensity of the component which is exerted squarely against the roof. It measures 4⅓ inches. This number multiplied by 100 gives 433 pounds as the intensity of this force. The line C A, which represents the other component, or that which tends to push the snow from the roof, measures 2½ inches. The intensity of this force is therefore 250 pounds.

4. The wind strikes the vanes of the mill obliquely, just as the weight of the snow in the preceding problem was exerted obliquely to the roof, and a like result follows. The force of the wind is resolved into two components, one of which acts squarely against the vanes and is efficient for turning the mill; the other is a useless component, called a "tail wind." But the vanes of the mill are set obliquely to the direction in which the mill turns, so that the efficient component, which presses squarely against them, must in its turn be resolved into two other forces, of which one acts in the direction in which the mill turns; the other, acting at right-angles with this direction, presses the mill against its bearings. Thus, a part only of the force of the wind is effective in doing work, one part being lost in the "tail wind," and the other part being worse than lost, since its effect is to increase friction.

The action of the wind upon the sail of a boat is the same as upon the vanes of a windmill. There are the same two resolutions of the force of the wind, the final result being two forces, one of which acts lengthwise of the boat to propel it forward in the direction of "least resistance," while the other acts at right-angles with this direction to drive the boat sideways. To make this leeward movement as small as possible, is the purpose of the keel or the centre-board, which increases the resistance encountered by a boat moving in that manner.

Continued from page 479, Vol. V., sub-section "ANGLES."

Laying off Angles

Where great accuracy is not required angles may be laid off very readily by means of a "protractor," which can be constructed as follows. Describe on a sheet of cardboard a circle with a radius of two or three inches. Quarter it by drawing two diameters at right-angles with each other. Divide one of the quadrants of the circle into nine equal parts, by means of a pair of dividers. Each part will have a value of ten degrees. These parts may all be halved, when you will have a scale with five degree divisions. Single degrees can be estimated. Number the degrees 5, 10, 15, 20, and so on, for convenience, up to 90. Keep this card, as one of your drawing instruments. Its use is illustrated in the following

Example :— I wish to find the length of the longest diagonal in an oblique-angled parallelogram of which the sides measure 20 and 30 rods — two of each length — and of which the acute angles measure each 35 degrees.

Construction :— Adopting a scale of 10 rods to the inch, I first draw a horizontal line of three or four inches in length. I open my dividers to a width equal to the length of the radius of my "protractor" and setting one foot of them at one end of the line, at a point A, I describe an arc of a circle which cuts the line. This being a part of a circle of the same size as that of my protractor, degrees on it will have the same length as those of my scale. I measure off on this arc 35 degrees from the point at which the arc cuts the line, using my dividers and through the point on the arc thus found I draw a line to the point A. I now have my angle. The next step is to measure off on one line three inches and on the other two inches, and to construct a parallelogram with these lines for sides. Next I draw a diagonal from A to the angle opposite, and measuring it I find its length to be a trifle over 4.75 inches. Multiplying by 10 — for an inch means 10 rods — I find the length required as an answer to the problem to something over 47.5 rods. With a larger diagram I might have measured the distance a little more closely.

The true length of this line, as it may be found by trigonometry, is 47.76 rods. This example not only illustrates the method of solving such a problem with a diagram, but also the closeness of the approximation to a correct solution which may thus be obtained.

GEO. SENECA JONES.

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QUESTION DEPARTMENT

OF THE HOME UNIVERSITY LEAGUE

For the benefit of those whose acquaintance with the Question Department begins with this issue, it may be well to say that SELF CULTURE readers are expected to look up in the Encyclopædia Britannica each day the answer to the question given for that day. This will seldom require more than one hour, but in the event that one evening's leisure does not suffice, it will be easy to continue the investigation the following evening while the subject is still fresh in the reader's mind. The conscientious pursuit of the home study involved in this department will lead to the possession of a large and varied stock of general information.

THE answers to SELF CULTURE questions for November will be found in various volumes of the new Encyclopædia Britannica. The volume and page are indicated after each question.

Nov. 1. What historic fortress guards the approach to Helsingfors, Finland, and what combined fleets bombarded it early in the century? Vol. XI, p. 641

Nov. 2. What precipitated the Battle of Navarino, which annihilated the Turkish fleet, and what was the policy of England under Lord Canning towards an oppressed nation like that of Greece? Vol. XI, p. 125

Nov. 3. On which of the Hawaiian Islands is the capital (Honolulu) situated, and what is its distance from San Francisco? Vol. XI, p. 528

Nov. 4. What is meant by the terms, the Stone Age, the Bronze Age, and the Iron Age, in the proofs furnished by geology of the early existence of man on the earth? Vol. X, p. 369.

Nov. 5. What is the estimated breadth, depth and mean velocity of the Gulf Stream, and what is its temperature when it leaves the Gulf? Vol. X, p. 220

Nov. 6. At what depth in the ocean does the influence of waves, ground-swell, and other surface disturbances usually cease? Vol. X, p. 285

Nov. 7. What other causes besides gravitation account for the downward movement of glaciers? Vol. X, p. 631

Nov. 8. Give the date of President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation. When did it formally come into effect? Vol. XXII, p. 143

Nov. 9. When did Ulysses S. Grant attain the rank of lieutenant-general and commander-in-chief? Vol. XXIII, p. 779

Nov. 10. How long did Prince Metternich live after the close of his political career as an Austrian statesman and diplomat? Vol. XVI, p. 202

Nov. 11. Name the capital of Alsace-Lorraine and state the length of its siege in the war of 1870–71. Vol. XXII, p. 589

Nov. 12. Explain what is meant by the ecclesiastical offense, Simony. Vol. XXII, p. 84

Nov. 13. Show what changes, historically, have come over the Island of Sicily and reduced it to a mere appanage of Italy. Vol. XXII, p. 29

Nov. 14. What are the defects that mar the beauty of Shelley's poetry? Show that the lyrics are in the main free from these defects. Vol. XXI, p. 793

Nov. 15. What qualities give Charles Lamb place beside the great essayists, Montaigne, Sir Thomas Browne, Steele, and Addison? Vol. XIV, p. 235

Nov. 16. What is Prescott's rank as an historian? In what essentials did he differ from Robertson, who also wrote on Spain under Charles V? Vol. XIX, p. 704

Nov. 17. What characteristics of Nathaniel Hawthorne's genius are exemplified in his romance, "The Scarlet Letter?" Vol. XI, p. 538

Nov. 18. What literary qualities in Bret Harte enabled him to describe Western life in America so dramatically? E. B. Supp., Vol III, p. 1536

Nov. 19. What literary qualities mark Emerson's Essays and give distinction to his writings? E. B. Supp., Vol. II, p. 1196

Nov. 20. With what public works in France was Gustave Eiffel identified before he achieved fame by his engineering skill in the construction of the Eiffel Tower? E. B. Supp., Vol. II, 1128

Nov. 21. Name the political, literary and educational labors of the Spanish statesman and orator, Emilio Castelar. E. B. Supp., Vol. II, p. 719

Nov. 22. Show how the study of embryology has been of great use to morphologists and physiologists. E. B. Supp., Vol. II, p. 1186

Nov. 23. Explain the meaning of the term "telepathy," and state what Science has to say of the manifestations and psychological mysteries classed under the term. E. B. Supp., Vol. V, p. 2869

Nov. 24. Explain the process, so far as is known and observed, in the formation of the sense-organs in vertebrates. E. B. Supp., Vol. V, p. 2683

Nov. 25. Name the chief mineral and vegetable preparations in use as insect-destroyers, and state what are their respective merits. E. B. Supp., Vol. III, p. 1684

Nov. 26. Give some account of the principal types of modern reaping and harvesting machines. E. B. Supp., Vol. III, p. 1539

Nov. 27. What other circumstances, besides the quantity of rainfall, determine the agricultural possibilities of a given area or district? E. B. Supp., Vol. IV, p. 2045

Nov. 28. Upon what principle does Tesla's Induction Coil work? Explain its construction. E. B. Supp., Vol. II, p. 1155

Nov. 29. Name the first play written and acted in America and state who was the first professional American dramatist. E. B. Supp., Vol. II, p. 1078

Nov. 30. Describe the official seal and give the motto of the State of Maine. E. B. Supp., Vol. III, p. 1972

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. VI DECEMBER, 1897 No. 3

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY OF THE UNITED STATES

IT is much to be feared that there are very many good citizens who cannot name the Presidents of our country in their order and give the years of their incumbency. Probably a very small percentage of the population could do this, but as regards Vice-Presidents the popular ignorance is far greater. There are many well-educated people who could not name two-thirds of them. Indeed the vice-presidency has fallen into such low repute that it is hardly thought of except during national campaigns. The vice-presidency is simply a bait to catch votes and is usually given as a sop to the failing faction of the party in national conventions.

It is a matter of regret that this is the case, and yet, it is hard to see how it could be otherwise under the system as it exists at present. As the power of the presidency has grown, that of the second office has declined until the Vice-President has become little more than a President-in-waiting. Any one familiar with the political conventions of the last generation is aware of the low estimate placed upon the office and the scorn with which the suggestion of the nomination has been rejected by aspirants for the higher office. No leading candidate for first place has been nominated for the vice-presidency in fifty years.

Once a more Honored Office

This condition did not always exist. In our earlier history the office was esteemed and sought for by men of the highest political rank. Until 1804 the Vice-President was always the failing candidate for the presidency. This was changed after Burr nearly gained the presidency over Jefferson. For forty years the office was given to men of national importance, but since the apostasy of Tyler it has gone usually to inferior men, as regards political prestige, though the contrary should have been the case. Nevertheless, the vice-presidency as a whole has been held by men of superior abilities and, if we omit two or three persons, of nearly equal ability to the Presidents.

It is also noteworthy that the tenure of office of Vice-Presidents has been more uncertain than that of the Presidents. Five have died in office, one has resigned, and four were promoted to the presidency by the death of incumbents. There are at present living but two ex-Vice-Presidents and also but two Presidents, being the same men with whom the former served. No President or Vice-President is living who was elected prior to 1884.

It may not be without interest to trace briefly the careers of the men who have held second place in the administration, not one of whom was ever chosen President since the change in the manner of election, with the exception of Van Buren, who got his promotion by the grace of Andrew Jackson in return for personal favors.

The First Two Incumbents

Of Adams and Jefferson it is scarcely necessary to speak, as their fame is in no wise connected with the vice-presidency. Yet during their incumbency the office was more important politically than it has been since. It is true that Adams was a Federalist, but he belonged to the Eastern wing of the party which was bitterly opposed by Hamilton.

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Adams was an able man, of considerable vanity, who believed that first honors might have been conferred on him without impropriety, and he exalted his second place. In those days there were few senators, and for some time all sessions were held behind closed doors. Adams presided with dignity and probably exerted more influence over the body than any other Vice-President that has ever been in office. The legislation of the first two Congresses was the most important in our history. It laid down our system practically as it is to-day. This was not accomplished without great effort and much log-rolling. Hamilton often found Adams opposed to his wishes, and the friction that arose was of importance when Adams was a candidate for President, as has already been explained in these papers.

Jefferson as Vice-President

Jefferson succeeded Adams, and in the Senate chamber he laid many of the plans that resulted in the supremacy of the Republican party. Jefferson was of an altogether different temperament from Adams, and while he seemed on the surface to take less interest than did Adams in legislation, in fact he took a great deal more. Jefferson was unusually silent during the last two years of Adams' administration. He saw the partisan legislation pushed through, probably with some composure, as he knew that it was political suicide for his enemies. His position in the last month of the term, however, was embarrassing in the extreme. He saw the plot going on to deprive him of the presidency of which he believed himself to have been cheated in 1797. After the breaking down of the plan to force no election, he witnessed the effort to make Burr President, which might have succeeded had not Hamilton thrown his influence in favor of Jefferson. Never did a man in similar position have to decide so momentous a question between two such bitter enemies.

Burr dishonors the Office

With Burr's election to the vice-presidency came a distinct decline in the dignity of the office. Burr was one of the able men of his day, but he was respected by few. His candidacy for second place was solely due to his influence in New York, which was necessary to offset that of Hamilton. When it was known that he was coquetting for the presidency at the expense of Jefferson, he lost caste immensely and his popularity began to wane. Finding himself distrusted by many of his party, he resolved to retrieve his political fortunes by running for governor of New York. Into this contest he threw himself with energy and Hamilton was as earnest in opposition. Burr was defeated, and for some remarks made by Hamilton in the canvass, the former challenged the latter to a duel. The result was the death of Hamilton under circumstances which amounted to little less than murder. Burr fled for a time but finally had the temerity to return to his place in the Senate where he was avoided by nearly everyone. Of his subsequent career there is no need to speak here. It is a long record of failure and ignominy, but it is noteworthy that he was the first and only man to disgrace the high office to which he had been chosen, that he was the first Vice-President of the same political faith as the President, that between them there was distrust, and that he was largely responsible for the change by which the electoral college chose both President and Vice-President explicitly.

Clinton dies in Office

After the death of Hamilton no one thought of Burr as a candidate again. In 1805 the Republicans chose George Clinton as their candidate and triumphantly elected him. Clinton was a man of unusual calibre. He had been an ardent patriot in the early struggles for liberty, was the close friend of Washington, had been governor of New York, and had received as high as fifty electoral votes for the presidency, being voted for at three different elections. He was a man of energy to whom New York owes a great deal. With him originated the idea of the Erie canal which his nephew carried out. Clinton was made of good enough stuff for a President and probably would have made a better one than Jefferson during the latter's second term. He was more of a man of affairs and less of a speculative philosopher than Jefferson, and we can well believe that a sturdier diplomacy might have averted many of the ills that befell us at that time. It is certain that he would not have originated the crab-like policy of the Embargo.

Clinton was elected to serve with Madison for a second term. Again there was

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a wide difference between the sturdy character of the former Governor of New York and the mild, scholarly Virginian who became President. Clinton, however, was in no position to affect the policy of the administration, even if he had desired to change it, though the Embargo and Non-importation, acts bore heavily on New York. Clinton was a genuine Democrat and in some respects a prototype of Jackson. His last public act was to give the casting vote in the Senate against a re-charter of the National Bank, the fond project of Hamilton. He died in office. Well might it have been for his party and his country if he had voted for the re-charter and well also if Madison could have agreed to sign it. In the struggle that was soon to come, the Government missed the Bank more than almost anything else. It was the need of it in the trying times of war that made a new bank possible after the war, although the Jeffersonian-Democrats were in full control of the Government.

Elbridge Gerry also dies in Office

In 1812 the vice-presidency once more went to Massachusetts. It may be remarked here that since the beginning of our constitutional government the vice-presidency has been held by Southern men for a total of only sixteen years. This omits Jefferson, who was simply a failing candidate for first honors. Six Southern men have been elected. One never took his seat, two succeeded to the presidency after about a month's service, one resigned and only two served the full terms for which they were elected. On the other hand Southern men have held the presidency for fifty-three years.

Elbridge Gerry was a Democrat of the most approved type. He served in public life for nearly forty years. He was a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was prominent during the Revolution, and was the man who overhauled Benedict Arnold's accounts which led to his censure and his subsequent treason. He was one of the most popular men in his State, was twice elected to three offices at once, and as Governor of Massachusetts was noted as a spoilsman. In his policy of redistricting the State so as to give his party control of the Legislature he added the word "gerrymander" to our political lexicon. He was a positive man of the old school and a man of no mean abilities. It is impossible to conceive of a greater difference in types than existed between him and his superior, James Madison. Gerry also died in office and is one of the almost forgotten statesmen of the country.

New York wins once more

New York once more got the vice-presidency in 1816, when Monroe was chosen President. It is significant that the Empire State has furnished more than its share of men for second place. The terms for which New York men have been elected foot up forty years. One died in office, and two succeeded to the presidency, while only two New York men were ever elected President.

The choice this time fell upon Daniel Tompkins, who had been a judge and notable governor of his State. Tompkins is another man who has been almost forgotten. The Virginians who were all speculative philosophers, aside from Washington, show up in strong contrast with the men who were chosen with them as Vice-Presidents. These, with the exception of Burr, were hard-headed Northern men of experience in affairs, who had been in executive positions and who would, if Presidents, have changed greatly the course of events. Tompkins had been a tower of strength in his State. He had been a forceful character in trying times. As governor he had gone to extraordinary lengths, and had no Virginian ideas about speculative philosophy in politics. When the War of 1812 broke out, for the first year New York had to carry on the contest very largely on her own resources. Congress had raised an army on paper and ordered a large amount of bonds sold. The War Department planned three invasions of Canada, two of them by way of New York State. When neither men nor money were forthcoming, the New York militia were called out to aid the small army of regulars to carry on the war. It cannot be said that at first the militia covered themselves with glory. They refused point blank to cross the Niagara River at a time when victory was in sight, and when much might have been gained. The militia generals were great on proclamations, but at the start they were poor fighters. Nevertheless, New York worked hard and spent immense sums

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of money. Tompkins was governor and went to work with energy. One of his militia generals, Jacob Brown, came out of the war with the greatest reputation of any of our soldiers, possibly excepting Andrew Jackson.

The Longest Service

Tompkins served as Vice-President through two terms with Monroe, making the longest term of service of any of our Vice-Presidents, Adams not taking his seat until April, 1789, and serving a little less than eight years, while Clinton died shortly before his second term ended. Tompkins died soon after his term of office expired, in a state of mental disorder, due to the fact that charges were preferred against him over his public accounts during the War of 1812.

The First Southern Vice-President

Calhoun was the first Southern man to be elected Vice-President. As has been said, up to 1804 there were no avowed candidates for the vice-presidency and that they were not voted for as such by the electors. All were candidates for the presidency and the second highest man on the list got the vice-presidency as a consolation prize. Calhoun, like Clinton, served under two different Presidents, but he did not fill out his second term. He was the last of the Vice-Presidents of the old school. Calhoun, when first elected, was the warm friend of the younger Adams and was one of the most esteemed men in public life. In his earlier years he was much more liberal in his views than later, and his experience as Vice-President undoubtedly had something to do with the change that came over him. Calhoun, as Secretary of War under Monroe, had objected to the high-handed proceedings of Jackson when he was carrying war into Florida at a time when we were at peace with Spain. Jackson did not find this out for a long time, but when he did it made many changes in politics. Under the younger Adams, Calhoun served as Vice-President with dignity and was waiting his own good time in politics. He never liked Jackson. In fact few men in public life could take Jackson seriously as a candidate for the presidency, and the latter's election in 1828 was a surprise to many people who could not believe that a man with so few supposed qualifications for office would be preferred before men who had grown old in public life.

It did not take Jackson long to find out what had been the attitude of Calhoun toward him in the Florida matter. There is no denying that Calhoun was right, for Jackson had acted outrageously, and only the shrewd tact of Adams, who could manage so much better for anyone else than himself, prevented Jackson from being disgraced while he was in command in the South. But Jackson was never willing to concede that he was wrong in anything, and, even if he had been willing, that would not have made his desire for revenge the less. Calhoun was expecting that Jackson would support him for the succession, for at first there was no talk of a second term. Calhoun had now veered round to the States Rights and Free Trade idea, and had made his stand on the Tariff of Abominations.

The Hayne-Webster Debate

As has already been explained in these papers, the great historic debate between Hayne and Webster arose out of an attempt on the part of Calhoun to attach the growing West to the Southern interest. Could that have been done, the combination must have succeeded. The point of attack was the question of the distribution of the proceeds of the public lands. The original Thirteen States were growing restive as they saw the Western States increase in numbers and power. There was a constant drain of population to the West, and the sales of public lands had grown so heavy that the public debt was now about to be extinguished, and there was a difference of opinion as to how the surplus was to be distributed.

The Foot Resolution

Senator Foot, of Connecticut, offered a resolution that thereafter sales of public lands be limited, in the expectation that the original Thirteen States would agree upon some sort of a plan by which they might get a larger share of the proceeds on the basis of original proprietors. This was a short-sighted policy. The national Government had paid all the revolutionary debt and that of the War of 1812, and had spent the most of the public moneys in the East. It was bad policy to make a discrimination between the original

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Thirteen and the other States. Calhoun was quick to see this, and he put Hayne up to make the onslaught on the East, against which there had been much public feeling since the Tariff of Abominations had been passed in 1828. What might have happened but for Webster's mighty argument in favor of the nation as a whole, cannot be guessed, but that one speech smashed the fabric of Nullification for the time being and made the coalition of the South and West impossible.

Jackson as Banquo's Ghost

Calhoun still coquetted with Jackson and a banquet was arranged to launch forth Calhoun for the presidency. The theme of the speeches was to be the necessity of limiting Federal power and the glorification of the right of Nullification. The President was present at this banquet, and when called on for a toast gave this: "The Federal Union — it must be preserved." This, as a historian has pointed out, was like the appearance of Banquo's ghost at Macbeth's banquet, and put a damper on the whole proceedings.

Calhoun now came out in open opposition to Jackson, and the South Carolina plan of Nullification was undertaken with regard to the tariff of 1832. While we can believe that Jackson was a thorough Union man, it is certain that his prejudices were such that he took unusual delight in suppressing that conspiracy, and his threat to hang Calhoun was no idle one, as that statesman well knew. While the Union triumphed as the result of a compromise, it cannot be said that the serpent was any more than scotched. Calhoun left the vice-presidency, the only incumbent who ever resigned, and was re-chosen to the Senate, where he carried on his campaign for Nullification for nearly another generation.

Few men in this country have had the commanding abilities of Calhoun, none were superior to him in morals and conduct, but he turned to ignoble purposes intellectual powers which might have left his name one of the brightest in our history, even if he had not gained the long-sought presidency.

New York wins once more

Calhoun was dropped in 1832 and another New Yorker chosen for the vice-presidency. Martin Van Buren was one of the ablest politicians from a State that has always had politicians of ability. He belonged to the younger school which had come up since the Revolutionary patriots had passed away. The story has often been told of his loyalty to Jackson. In the latter's first term he was Secretary of State. When Jackson found himself in hot water because none of the ladies of the cabinet would recognize "Peggy" Eaton, wife of the Secretary of War, Van Buren, who was a widower, sided with the President and tried to help on her social pretensions. This was a failure, the cabinet was disrupted, and Van Buren was sent to Great Britain as minister during a recess. When the Senate reassembled, Calhoun, Clay, and Webster combined forces and Van Buren's nomination was rejected, something that had never before occurred in regard to so prominent an office, and for no reason but personal spite. Jackson took up the cudgels for Van Buren and had him nominated Vice-President and finally turned over to him the presidency in 1837. This is the most remarkable instance of personal domination in our politics. We have had State and minor bosses, but we have had but one boss who could actually dominate his party and the majority of the people. It is a noteworthy fact that Martin Van Buren is the only Vice-President chosen by the electors who ever became President afterwards. As already explained, Adams and Jefferson were in a different category.

Van Buren not only served as Vice-President and President, but was afterwards a candidate for President on a bolting ticket and succeeded in defeating the choice of the party that had formerly elected himself. This is a remarkable record. Van Buren fell heir to all the evils of the Jacksonian dynasty and to none of its blessings. He deserved far more success than he actually attained. The situation was not unlike that which existed during Cleveland's second term, and Van Buren was defeated by hard times more than by anything else.

A picturesque Vice-President

With Van Buren served Col. Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, a picturesque character in our politics, a man of great force of character though with little polish. He claimed to have killed Tecumseh with his

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own hand at the battle of the Thames. I would like to say in this connection that, some twenty years ago, while making a trip among the Indians of the Northwest, I made the acquaintance of an aged Indian who claimed to have been an aide-de-camp of Tecumseh at that battle and who saw Tecumseh killed by one of the Indian allies of the American troops. This story was substantiated in several ways, and I found that there was every reason to believe it.

The first promoted Vice-President

John Tyler was Vice-President but for a month, and, as he was little known before, there is no need to comment here on his career, as his fame dates from his promotion to the presidency. He was the first to be thus promoted, and there was some talk in Congress as to how he was to be addressed, whether as acting-President, Vice-President promoted, etc., but Tyler settled that himself by insisting on all the rights and privileges of the office and no one has since raised the question. His administration must be considered a failure, however viewed. He was nominated solely because he shed tears in the Harrisburg Convention over the defeat of Clay, as it was supposed that this would please the great Kentuckian. Though he turned apostate, and the plan of nominating a Vice-President for other reasons than fitness for the highest honors was a complete failure and ought to have been a warning, the practice has been kept up until the present time. This is not a reflection on the Vice-Presidents, but it is a fact that not one of them was ever a serious candidate for the presidency, and not one was nominated with the expectation that he would be thus promoted. Yet this has happened four times in less than sixty years.

Dallas wins in Pennsylvania

George M. Dallas, who was chosen along with James K. Polk, was nominated to get the Pennsylvania protectionist vote away from Henry Clay. The cry was raised "Polk, Dallas, and the tariff of 1842," the latter measure being satisfactory to protectionists. Yet the Democratic party passed the Walker tariff bill which was the lowest measure in many years, and substituted the ad valorem for the direct tax and upset the whole system of protection then existing. The strangest thing is that at a critical time Dallas saved the Walker tariff from defeat by his casting vote. This was the principal notoriety he gained in the vice-presidency.

New York Once More

Millard Fillmore was a substantial citizen of New York, with large experience and a good record. He was opposed to Seward in State politics, and Seward had the ear of the President so long as he lived. When Taylor died, Fillmore gave in his adherence to the compromise measures, including the Fugitive Slave Law, which was his political death warrant. As Vice-President he felt hurt that Taylor gave so much patronage to Seward. He was afterwards the American candidate for the presidency, and polled the largest third party vote that had been cast up to that time.

King dies without Serving

William R. King became President of the acting Vice-President on the death of Taylor and the promotion of Fillmore, and was elected Vice-President but never took his seat. By special act of Congress he was allowed to take the oath of office in Cuba, where he had gone for his health. He died the day he returned to this country, and Senator Atchison, of Missouri, became acting Vice-President. Atchison took such an active part in making Kansas a Slave State that he resigned his position.

John C. Breckenridge was the youngest man ever elected Vice-President. When chosen he was thirty-five, just the constitutional age. He was a man of ability, culture, and greatly esteemed even by his political enemies. The story of his unsuccessful race for the presidency is too well known to repeat here, even if there were sufficient space.

Hannibal Hamlin was so thoroughly discussed in a late issue of SELF CULTURE that there is no necessity to speak of him here, except to say that the author of that article in assuming, as he evidently does, that Lincoln desired Hamlin's renomination, is in error. Lincoln first offered the position to Gen. Butler, who declined it, and then Johnson was selected by the President.

I have written so much in these papers about Andrew Johnson that I shall only

say here in brief that as time goes on he is being more highly thought of than at the time he served as President. He was a man of great abilities, little culture, great determination, and, I believe, of honest motives. He tried to carry out Lincoln's policy, as he knew it, and that he failed was partially owing to his own limitations, partly to the factious opposition to him from the Republican leaders, and partly to the excitement of the times.

Recent Incumbents

Of recent Vice-Presidents there is little need to speak fully. Colfax had been speaker of the House of Representatives, and was dropped for a second term because he first declined to be a candidate and then changed his mind. He was beaten by a narrow margin. Henry Wilson was a man of experience and ability, who had forged his way to the front from poverty and obscurity. He died in office. William A. Wheeler, of New York, was well known in his own State, but very little outside of it. Chester A. Arthur was nominated as a sop to Senator Conkling for the defeat of Grant at Chicago in 1880, and became President on the death of Garfield. He was the most successful of all our accidental Presidents, giving to the administration a social distinction it had never before known. Mr. Hendricks died in office. Mr. Morton is alive and hearty in a useful old age. Mr. Stevenson, who was nominated in 1892 to please the spoilsmen, is now serving as a Bimetallic Commissioner abroad, and Mr. Hobart is still in office, and is the most expert parliamentarian and the ablest presiding officer the Senate has had in many years.

Some Changes Needed

This brief review of the vice-presidency is enough to convince readers that there is plenty of good presidential material in the country even when not selected. In few instances would the country have suffered if the incumbents of the two offices had changed places. Nevertheless, the fact that we have had four accidental Presidents ought to lead the people to a more careful choice in selecting Vice-Presidents. This can be done only by increasing the dignity and emoluments of the vice-presidency so as to make it attractive to first-class men. Until this is done, no change can be expected, but there are very serious difficulties in doing it. It is not possible to divide responsibilities. Congress and the people seem inclined to trust Providence to preserve the lives of Presidents rather than to undertake a task that is full of difficulties.

JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

The Household of the Lafayettes

Under the title of "The Household of the Lafayettes," an Englishwoman (Miss Edith Sichel) has just published a work which has no small interest for Americans — an account of the "hero of two hemispheres," who was a prominent figure in the War of the Revolution, an active but feeble participator in the French Revolution, and commander of the French National Guards in the outbreak of 1830. Of Lafayette the writer gives us a fairly accurate estimate, characterizing him as an idealist, without much capacity for leadership, and very little insight into the turmoil and drift of events.

But the biographer, as a reviewer points out, has perceived cleverly enough that the real interest of Lafayette's life lay not in himself, but in the illustrious family into which he married. The old nobility of France, as we are becoming persuaded at last, were not all tyrants and libertines. Frivolity and extravagance were there, no doubt, but they existed side by side with simple-hearted piety and strict attention to the land-owner's duties. The illustrious race of the Noailles gave splendid soldiers to France, while its women were models of the domestic virtues, without the drawback of prudery. Of them was the Duchesse d'Ayen, whose daughter, Adrienne, became Lafayette's wife. From fairly obvious sources Miss Sichel has constructed a charming interior of that admirable household. We follow the mother as she reads poetry to her children, with the innocently didactic purpose of inspiring them with a love of beauty which she considered part of the love of goodness. With such an up-bringing Madame Lafayette made a perfect wife, and when the pinch came she proved herself more of a heroine than her husband was a hero. She sheltered priests from the fury of the Jacobins; she frequented Marie Antoinette's court when fairweather favorites were forsaking her. She reduced the mutinous guard to temporary obedience by her courageous defense of her husband's conduct; after he had fallen prisoner to the Allies she faced the persecutions of the provincial officials with an undaunted front. Her struggles to save Lafayette's property at Chavaniac were in the high Roman manner, dignified, and yet persistent. When dragged off to prison in Paris her heart did not fail her, though her grandmother, mother, and sister went to the guillotine. Miss Sichel goes through the familiar scenes which proved how an aristocracy, which might have misused its privileges, at least knew how to die.

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THE TRAGEDY OF THE FIRST BORN:

A LITERARY REMINISCENCE

By JUDGE ALBION W. TOURGÉE, Author of "Bricks Without Straw," Etc., Etc.

I was scarcely more than a youth, even in years, when my first book was published; in experience of the world I could be counted little more than a child. Yet I thought myself a man. I had done two things which are accounted especially within the purview of manhood — I had voted for a President, and participated in a great battle. But for the latter fact, indeed, that first book had neither been written nor published — at least, not until long afterwards.

From my early childhood I had known none of the home-feeling which is so strong with most lads. My mother dying while I was yet too young to remember her, her place was taken by one who made my father's house anything but home to me. Her conduct was not kindly meant, but in the end it proved the greatest of blessings. It drove me early out of the house, into the fields and woods — anywhere that she was not — and made the flowers and birds, my dog, and, later on, my gun and books, my companions. It caused me to be shy and constrained among my fellows, and always anxious to get back to nature and my books. When the call to arms came, therefore, I had a body toughened by labor and exposure; was counted an athlete of special endurance; and, having lived in the company of books rather than of men, did not stop to consider my interests, or, rather, had none to consider. I had no hesitation or doubt in regard to my duty. I merely broke the thread of my school life short-off, and enlisted as a private soldier under the first call for troops.

To-day, I was a student, intent upon mastery of the curriculum; to-morrow, I was a soldier, learning tactics and practicing the manual of arms. I wrote a letter to my sweetheart; packed my belongings in a trunk; sent it to my father, and the transformation was complete. The old life hardly overlapped the boundaries of the new at all. Two of my college-friends went with me, and in my knapsack there were two thin little volumes — a Greek Testament, and a Leipsic edition of Cicero's "De Natura Deorum." It was a most foolish thing to do, for a soldier ought not to carry an ounce of unnecessary weight; but if one must lug a half-pound of literature out of the college into the field of strife, I hardly know how he could choose better.

Why I should have taken these particular books I do not know. I was not especially religious. Perhaps the fact that I was very familiar with the English Testament may have been the cause of my taking the Greek one, thinking thus to keep in touch with my favorite study. The "De Natura" I must have taken because I liked it. I had already read it more than once. Looking back upon that time, I quite wonder at the indefinable charm this work had for me. I could hardly have appreciated the style, and it does not seem as if the thought of this non-committal Roman agnostic could have had much attraction for a young man under such circumstances. However that may be, I took these volumes and read them, now and then, during the month of camp and barrack life that intervened between enlistment and the first great battle-day. The Testament proved to be of real value. My special friend and comrade was a theological student, who, through lack of early advantages, was dull enough in his Greek, though his piety was as warm as his patriotism. He devoted some portion of every day to a study of the foundation of the faith he hoped to expound, and I have often since been gladdened by the thought that my little book and somewhat better knowledge of the Greek idioms were of service to this noble comrade who, a year later, gave up his life for the land he loved.

For myself, I will confess that I read much more frequently, with better relish, and, probably, with more profit, some parts of the "Comédie Humaine" in the original, which, though bound in paper, were twice as heavy as both the others. They were all in my knapsack when it was piled with those of my comrades in ten black heaps on the crest of the hill

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above Chaplin's Ford, where a guard was set over them while we went to do our part in the battle of Bull Run. Of course I never saw them afterwards; which was just as well, since after that day's fight, the old life had become but a remote background against which a new one was projected, full of lurid lights and dull, hopeless shadows.

There are some things that fancy cannot paint, and first among these is a battle-field. The eye which hath not seen, and the heart which hath not felt, can never imagine it truly. The heat, the dust, the nervous strain, the seeming confusion, the real order, the roar above, and the terrible silence below — these cannot be told even by those who have felt them, much less by those who have not.

Especially is this true of a modern battle, fought in a hilly and partly wooded region. The roar of artillery is a bass which dominates and minifies, without destroying, other sounds. The upward curving fire of batteries playing on each other from opposite crests, make a resounding canopy through which shells hurtle and shriek, fringed with blue smoke on the horizon, cut here and there with angry flashes of lurid flame. The earth shakes. The sun itself seems to tremble, seen through the clouds of dust and smoke. In the amphitheatre underneath this sounding dome, the battle goes on with strange unconsciousness. Your comrades' faces grow unfamiliar. You know the orders are shouted, but the over-mastering tumult above makes them seem no louder than ordinary conversation. You speak to one who stands beside you, and, much to your astonishment, hear his answer as easily as if on parade. Men are struck and fall; you wonder how it would seem to be shot. You wonder still more that you are not afraid. But nothing is as you expected it to be. The living and the dead are equally out of harmony with your preconceptions. The many things I saw that day I had never dreamed it would be my fate to witness. Perhaps I should better say my privilege, for, despite its consequences, there have been few days in my life which I would not sooner have blotted from my memory than the first great battle-day of the war we fought for liberty — not for our own liberties or interests, but the liberty of those who were forbidden to fight for themselves.

Three days afterward I awoke to consciousness in the Capital City, to find a nurse sitting by my bedside. The roar of the battle was still in my ears. Over and over, in my delirium, I lived again the scenes of that day already memorable in history — the morning march along the shady woods-road; the debouchment on the crest of the green hill that sloped down to a sparkling stream which ran through the valley; the batteries on either side playing on each other across the interval; the thunderous firmament, beneath which regiments marched in column and in line, fired crackling volleys and left still blue spots on the hot sward or in the golden stubble, as they passed on. I remembered the first shot that struck our regiment — the sickening thud of crushed humanity. There came to me again the strange thrill of wondering horror which one feels when his best friend reels back, choking with blood, into his arms. I thought it might be counted a breach of duty if I should leave my place in the ranks to minister to my comrade, but I carried him a dozen steps to the rear and laid him down beside a shock of wheat, placing one of the sheaves beneath his head for a pillow and arranging the others so as to shade his face from the blazing July sun. The bullets were cutting the stubble and raising little lines of dust about us as I did so. He was a bright, handsome fellow. It seemed strange that he should collapse so quickly! I was sure he had said something — given me some message — and tried vainly to recall what it was.

I remembered, too, that sudden hardening of the heart which the deadly conflict brought. In an hour death had become familiar. The devilishness of battle was upon me. I loaded and fired with a strange relish for the work. The sight of those that fell but enhanced my desire to kill. Ah, what a brute is man! And what rapture he feels in thus sating his brutishness!

There was a confused memory of a change of position. I thought we were going back the way we had come. Then a sudden pain, and — darkness!

A few weeks afterwards the verdict was rendered. It was hard enough for one who felt that the gates of life had just opened before him: "A short life

of pain, lassitude, helplessness;—then decay, oblivion, and—the end!"

That was what the surgeon prophesied in his last interview before I was taken to the station on a stretcher and shipped home—or, rather, to the place of enlistment—one of the first of a great army of war's victims who were to go back to the life they had left, unfitted for its duties, its joys embittered by inability to taste their sweetness.

Then followed months of hopelessness. Love came to my couch—and was driven away. What had I to do with love, I who was doomed to meet the inevitable so soon! So I waited, swinging inertly on my crutches;—lying dully on the couch;—expecting the worst.

A month, two months, passed by, and the worst had not yet come. Did nature mean to grant a reprieve? There was wonder, dread—a ray of hope—tingling hints of life where before there had been only the lethargy of death. Science stoutly re-affirmed the sentence it had given; yet new life crept into the sluggish limbs, and I began to think of a future not wholly without significance. If I could not hope to walk again, I might, at least, think and perhaps—write!

I caught my breath as I whispered the daring wish. It seemed a great and terrible thing for any one to contemplate—and for me incredible!

I had not greatly feared to engage in battle. That is, I had felt no inclination to turn and run away, to abandon the colors or shrink from duty. Perhaps I might have had but for the obligations of honor and the impulse of patriotism; but all the time I felt that I was nothing and the cause for which we fought was everything. But to write,—to expose my thought to other's ken,—to be known to have opened the window of my soul and asked the world to look in upon its most secret workings, to note its highest aspirations, and perhaps to discover its meanest tendencies—this thought set me all ashiver with affright.

I had written a few stories, short ones, for some rather cheap periodicals—so cheap that when once or twice a pittance had been paid for them, I felt quite ashamed at receiving pay for what I, no doubt, correctly deemed of too little merit to receive compensation for. But I had entertained no thought of literature as a serious occupation. I am afraid that I regarded the power to produce what is termed "literature" as some sort of a continuing or recurrent miracle. I doubt if it had once occurred to me that Shakespeare and Scott, Byron and Burns, and all the host of the immortals who inhabit Parnassus, were part and parcel of our common life, were moved by ordinary motives, or accomplished their work by the use of ordinary faculties. In some nameless way they were separated, in my thought, from common humanity, and I had no more idea of becoming one of their number than of wearing a crown. I may have wished I might—probably did,—but I regarded such a thing as hardly less likely to occur than that I should, by some inscrutable mystery, become heir to a throne.

At best, I think I only regarded myself as capable of that sort of second-handedness, that making over of intellectual clothes which have grown shabby by much use, which results from faithful study of what others have written. That I should ever enter the mystic realm of the Unknown where the Unthought abides, and bring back manna on which others might feed, never once occurred to my mind as possible. I desired to write because I thought there were some things I would like to say, and, because, having an irrepressible wish to do something, this seemed to be the only door of occupation which was even the least ajar to me.

I greatly wonder now that, in the condition I then was, both physically and mentally, I should have had an ambition to do anything, and can only account for it on the hypothesis that, being denied the usual activities, I felt a feverish desire to exert any possible faculties that might still remain available. At any rate, the fact that I had little time to work, with enfeebled powers able to endure but the slightest exertion, and compelled to write in the most strained and unnatural position, I had never felt such impulse to do, to finish, to complete something, whether great or small, to testify that I had been stimulated by the belief that in some brief interval I would not be, or at least would not consciously be, part of the world's life. I do not know why it was; I can only record the fact and its consequences.

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Of what is now called "literary art," which makes the method of more importance than the matter, the form of expression more essential than the thought, I had no conception. "Literary work" was the expression employed by the kindly friend who suggested this method of utilizing the fragments of what was deemed a hopelessly shattered life.

I have often wondered what was the actual significance of the term to his mind. He was a man of wide experience and intense practicality. Did he imagine what his words would suggest to the simple-minded boy who read them lying on a couch, with his crutches on the floor beside him, with no hope of any better estate? Did he think it would be construed into a hint that he might write books? Did he imagine it might be deemed a suggestion that thoughts might come to that throbbing brain which others might care to read? The idea was intoxicating. I think it soothed my pain and helped not a little to avert the calamity it was designed only to mitigate. At any rate, before I had finished reading the letter, I had determined to attempt some "literary work," as I construed the term, — that is, to write a book, or, more correctly, I think, to publish one.

Probably such a conclusion would not have seemed so absurd to a friend who then knew as much about me as one can know of another's mental furniture, as it does now to me. When I look at the lengthening array of volumes which bear my name, I am always surprised that I should have dared to publish even one. But the hardihood of these later ventures is as nothing when compared with the temerity displayed in putting forth that first thin little volume, which was the result of my old friend's suggestion. No doubt, he thought I had received a very fair preparation for "literary work."

In one sense this was true. So far as knowledge of the English tongue and its best literature constitutes a necessary ingredient of ability to write English books, I was not, for one of my age, seriously lacking. Of what is technically called education, I had the ordinary collegiate training of that time. The outbreak of war had come in the last term of my junior year, in what is sometimes sneeringly termed a "fresh-water college," at the head of which was a man of commanding character, and in the faculty of which there was one great scholar. Of course I did not approach them very nearly. They were both men of mature years, and a boy is fenced out of the life of a man by a curious inability to lift the wards of riper experience, behind which kindly nature hides the secret springs of manhood. It matters not how bright the boy may be or how dull the man, the youth cannot comprehend his ripened counterpart until he has passed, in experience as well as in years, the mystic line which separates adolescence from maturity. Some men are boys long afterwards. I think I was one of these. Of the world of thought outside the curriculum, in many and exceedingly diverse directions, I was not ignorant; but the world of men I did not learn easily. I was young, very young, when they came within my field of vision.

The president and professor must have felt virtue pass out of them whenever I touched the garments of their selfhood, so intense and marvelling was my study of them, or rather of my desire to know them. To say that I studied them is perhaps a misuse of terms. I simply wondered at them, and regarded my own future as wholly outside the Olympian realm in which they moved so easily and fittingly. This sentiment was not at all owing to reverence for their position. I was never given to profound regard for authority, and these men gained nothing in my esteem from their connection with the college faculty. It was the men themselves who impressed me — the intensity of purpose and moral enthusiasm of the one, and the amazing erudition of the other.

The college president, who made this suggestion of "literary work" to me was Carlylean in his individualization of humanity. For him, there were no groups or classes — only persons. He believed in men, not in nations or parties, but in men able and willing to do the right. To "play the man's part in the world's life" and "cause events to come to pass" was his ideal of a desirable existence. Withal, he was one of the few men of such positive character who laid down no rules for others to follow. He was a worshipper of success; but his idea of success was that "every man should do the best that is in him."

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So, when he wrote and asked what I expected to do with my shattered life, and I replied, a little desperately, that I saw nothing that I could do "better than keeping a toll-gate on a plank-road," — he replied promptly that it was "by no means an unworthy occupation if its duties were well performed — if one always made the right change and did not delay the travellers." To this he added the hint of "literary work," saying that the professor had suggested it to him.

I have always wondered if he dreamed how this hint of the professor's interest in my destiny would thrill me. I had hardly any reason to suppose that he would be able clearly to differentiate me among the endless procession of those who filed before him day after day, year after year, — I will not say to be taught, for I cannot remember that he taught anything in the usual sense of that term, — but to partake, if they would, of that marvellous fund of knowledge of the words in which men have clothed their thoughts since the earliest times, which he had gathered, and so freely and unpretentiously disbursed to all who chose to receive. Until I met him, the study of Greek had been tedious and unsatisfactory. In the first half-hour, he had made me love it better than one usually loves any task, by showing how the evolution of the thought-symbol revealed the progress of thought itself — demonstrating that the classic Greek, properly understood, was a myriad-volumed history of Grecian life, perhaps of the world-life. From that moment, I listened to him with rapt attention and ever-increasing wonder. I cannot say that conjugations and declensions became any more attractive, or that I had any marked desire to rival his attainments. It did not even occur to me that I could do so. He taught me, however, to challenge every word, to demand its significance, and learn, if I might, the story of its life. To this, I think, I owe more of pleasure, and certainly more of whatever literary success I have attained, than to any other educational influence, or perhaps any quality of mind, unless it be the faculty of persistent work — the power to do over and over again what I have once decided to attempt.

That those two men should have joined in the recommendation that I attempt some sort of "literary work," filled me with a kind of rapturous exaltation which I distinctly remember, but find it difficult to describe. Indeed, it may seem to others a matter of some surprise that it should have had such an effect, but when one recalls the fact that my life had been exceedingly full of depreciation, that my hope was at the lowest ebb, and that the suggestion was, as I construed it at least, the very one I would have desired, had I dared to give expression to my inmost wish, it may not seem so very strange.

I had long before devoted myself to the law, and, even in this dire extremity, had not failed to read every day some pages of Blackstone, that poet of the law, whose work is the golden gate through which every one must enter the domain of English judicature. I did not see any least hope that I should ever be able to practice the profession. Indeed, the utmost I allowed myself to hope was that I might so far recover as to be able to teach a little, while waiting for the inevitable. At this suggestion of "literary work," there sprung up in my mind a vague, wild desire that even my shattered life might be made to bud and blossom, so that the world would not quite forget that I had lived, nor wholly contemn the weak little fragment of vital force which had been granted me.

I can hardly think of this exhilaration now without confusion. It is not likely that either of these good friends, who had stooped from their exalted spheres to give me a word of cheer, had any idea that I should be tempted thereby to commit the folly of writing a book, much less the supreme absurdity of publishing one. No doubt both intended to suggest that I might do some sort of editorial work upon a newspaper, which did not necessarily imply any considerable physical activity or notable intellectual acumen. The newspaper of that day was not what it is now. One did not always approach the editorial desk through the reporter's "lay." Probably, if I had taken their hint as it was intended, they would have exerted themselves to secure me such a position. I am not sure that some effort was not made in that direction; no doubt they would both have regarded, with a

feeling very close to contempt, the aspiration their hint really suggested to the victim of their kind intentions.

Yet I do not think I was wholly to be blamed for arriving at the conclusion which I reached. The president had alluded to "an unusually extensive knowledge of literature" for one of my years, which, he said, would be "very useful in such work." It is not strange that, with my fixed idea that the capacity to produce literature depended chiefly upon capacity to absorb literature, I should have regarded this as the testimony of a man altogether competent to judge in regard to a prime essential for literary success. This will, perhaps, be regarded as the more excusable, in view of the fact that I was proud of the extent and variety of my reading; not altogether without reason, as I think, for I have often wondered, since the serious work of life has somewhat checked the absorptive process, not only at its extent, but especially at its character. It seems almost incredible that an ordinary country lad, the son of a farmer in moderate circumstances, should have found time and opportunity to read so many volumes, and a matter of amazing good fortune that they should have been of the very character they were. Not that they were the best for every boy to read, or would have constituted the best preparation for one desiring to become a writer of fiction. One might as well try to prescribe a universal dietary as to select the universal library, containing a specific number of "best books." What is best for one is not always the best for another. All minds do not assimilate mental aliment in the same manner, any more than all stomachs digest the same kind of food or in the same proportions.

Until my fourteenth year, the English Bible, Goodrich's "Universal History," a "History of the United States," the "Pilgrim's Progress," a volume of Bacon's "Essays," Milton's "Paradise Lost," Young's "Night Thoughts," and D'Aubigné's "History of the Reformation," constituted the chief part of my reading. To these might be added some lighter historical works: a "Book of Fables," which was an inexhaustible delight; the stories in the "Saturday Courier;" and the "Scottish Chiefs." I had also read a number of volumes of religious biography; how many I do not know, for I found them as uninteresting then as in later life, being chiefly narratives of spiritual symptoms, for which I cared little.

I do not remember that I had read any other fiction at that time. Some of these works I read because I loved them; others, because I was required to do so. I did not like "Paradise Lost," "Night Thoughts," nor certain parts of the Bible; though I was compelled to memorize large portions of them all, either for my soul's good, or as a punishment for childish offenses. I did not like "Pilgrim's Progress" either, though I counted it preferable to Milton or Young. Of the Bible, I liked especially John's Gospel, The Acts, and Revelation. At one time I could have supplied the English text of these books had it been lost. Of the Old Testament, I liked best the narrative portions, especially the fighting parts, and next the Prophets, particularly Ezekiel and Isaiah. The Psalms seemed to me distasteful repetitions.

This curious course of reading was lightened along its edges by Sunday School books, some of which were of considerable merit, though the stories were usually sickening even to one so young; not because they inculcated good lessons, but because they taught in a false and unnatural manner. The bulk of this reading was hearty food, and if I did not assimilate it all, what I did make mine was good bone and muscle-forming nutriment for a young soul.

The histories were my favorites. I loved action, heroism, achievement. The wars of Greece and Rome were my fairy land. Alexander, Tamerlane, Cæsar, Napoleon, were my heroes. I did not stop to analyze their motives; I rather assumed from the outset that they were bad; but the story of their achievements fascinated me. I marched with them, fought with them, and would gladly have been a heathen to have lived and died with them. In spite of this, the "History of the Reformation" was one of my favorite books. I suppose this was because of my great love for Martin Luther. He was the one hero I could idolize without fear of breaking any commandment. Next to him, of really admirable heroes, was, probably, the meek and scholarly Melanchthon, whom I can hardly imagine why I should then have liked

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at all, so little does he seem fitted to charm a boy's fancy; and after him sweet Hugh Latimer, who was my favorite among the martyrs, the whole category of whom I was compelled to swallow — most of them, I must confess, with little relish; whether because I was so bad or they too good for my unregenerate nature, I know not.

II.

In my fifteenth year the barriers which had hitherto shut me out from the verdant meads of our noble English literature were suddenly removed. I shall never forget the feeling of illimitable immensity which fell upon me at my first sight of a library — that is, a collection of books dignified by that name.

I do not know how many volumes there were in the little case which contained my father's literary possessions. He was a man of only moderate means, on whom the burden of life rested none too lightly. At one time he had been dowered with those visions that come to fervent natures. He had dreamed of a profession, and, while devoting his days to labor, had given his nights to preparation for it. I suspect, from what I came to know of a nature singularly attractive in its earnest ruggedness, that the preparation had extended very little beyond the gratification of what was then termed a "thirst for reading." Just at what period of his intellectual development, pecuniary loss and a religious awakening came to induce or compel the abandonment of these dreams and the substitution of an exalted moral fervor, I do not know. Neither do I know whether they were simultaneous or not; I only know that the little bird's-eye maple case in the best room of the farmhouse contained what was left of his dreams and what his sense of religious obligation had added thereto. He found little time for reading in those days, and the two or three religious and secular weeklies for which he subscribed occupied most of that.

The books I have here reminiscently named, with a few others of a miscellaneous character, composed the entire collection, if I except two commentaries, — great unwieldly volumes — and some controversial literature concerning dogmas, which especially interested him or were regarded as a proper equipment for one somewhat prominent in church affairs. In all, I doubt if the volumes big and little, ever amounted to a hundred. It was evident from his conversation, however, that he had read many others. His verbal memory was very retentive, and I have known him to repeat around the camp-fire with others, during the maple sugar making season, or when alone in the fields with me, whole poems and parts of poems not found in any of the books in the little case, and which it was only in after-years that I learned to have been written by various poets, whose works he had evidently come to regard as too trivial in character to be read by immortal beings whose moments on earth were numbered, and consequently precious. His piety had caused him to remove from the case, and probably to destroy, some of his prime favorites; for it was from him that I first became acquainted with many of the poems of Byron, Scott, and Burns, which he had liked so well that he committed them to memory. He was in heart and soul himself a poet, and the fervid energy with which he would recite Mazeppa, the Lady of the Lake, and the like, was of itself enough to incline a moody and intense nature, like that of the boy who hung upon his words, to silly indiscretions with a pen. I never knew, however, until I had reached middle life, that he had ever attempted to write verse. It would seem, no doubt, quite incompatible with his character, to those who knew only its rough outer crust; but, as I read the strong sonorous lines, both words and sentiment seemed a fitting echo of a vigorous, intense and manly nature — of which I had seen only rare and bewildering flashes.

I have never seen a greater number of volumes in one collection than were in my father's bookcase, until I stood for the first time in what was known as the "Library" of a New England town. Even this was not what would seem now a very imposing array. There were less than five hundred volumes, but every one of them was "standard." They had been carefully and prayerfully selected by a committee of three ministers and two laymen, and constituted a splendid exponent of the scholarship and common sense of a village by no means behind the age in attainment, or lacking in the

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prime New England inheritance of "culture." The "Library" was enclosed in a pine case, painted black and having three glass doors which slid past each other, not without complaint. The books were carefully covered and numbered on the back, while a well-thumbed catalogue hung by a string at each end of the case. Somehow, the books, thus reduced to a dead level of uniformity, were something of a disappointment to me; for I have always liked to recognize the volumes I read, as I do other friends, by their externals.

Within, the books were all gold to me. From that hour, until the call to arms sounded, I literally revelled in the luxuries of literature. Another library, larger and, perhaps, even better selected for my needs, opened its doors to me when I had tasted the cream of the first, and then another so large that selection became a task. I read poetry, fiction, history. Perhaps I might reverse the terms with equal propriety. Save that I set myself tasks in one domain or another, I read without system; yet not without a certain purpose. When, for instance, I began to read Grote or Gibbon, I read on to the end. So when I began to read the Pre-Shakespearean dramatists, I read the last one I could lay my hands on before I stopped. It is a tedious way to pursue knowledge, but not altogether unsatisfactory. Indeed, I found that history, read in this way, filled up the outline I had gathered from the "Universal History" much better than the topical method usually recommended.

I did not read to criticise, compare or find fault. What I liked I read carefully; sometimes I re-read, again and again. What I did not like, I read less carefully, sometimes carelessly, though I rarely left a book unread, after I had once begun its perusal, probably from some notion that it was hurtful or unworthy so to do. I had no standard of criticism or measure of excellence, except my own preference, and doubt if there is any better. Quite contrary to the modern view of such literary omnivorousness, I did not read fiction for the sake of the story merely. I liked to realize the characters, to feel the thrill of their achievements, and to live in fancy the lives depicted. I was especially fond of studying the background of fiction — the life and society of the times portrayed. I did not, however, scrutinize or dissect; and I have, even yet, but little patience with the comparative anatomy of literature. For a time I studied criticism, it is true, with the freshness which only a neophyte can feel. One man's opinion of another man's work is likely to be very misleading and is never important, except it be in exposition of the author's relation to the time in which he lived. Its value, even then, depends wholly on the character of the man who criticises. The opinion of the eagle who builds in the oak as to its quality, would probably be different from that of the ant which runs up and down the rugous trunk. Neither would comport with the botanist's idea of the giant *quercus* or the artist's notion of the monarch of the forest. Criticism is the most dangerous and depleting of literary amusements, because there can be no common or accepted standard of merit, as there is no super-excellence of method. The idea of the modern "realistic" school, that there is but one true method, and that their own, is the literary analogue of perpetual motion, for absurdity. There is not, and there cannot be, one perfect and exclusive method in literature any more than there is a royal road to knowledge. He who moves the heart and inspires the soul is the true poet, whatever the instrument with which he works.

I have often regretted that I should have so misconceived the probable import of my old friend's suggestion. There is reason to believe that he felt hurt at my failure to respond to his kindly overture. Alas, to me, the term "literary work" meant only the creation of books, and while hardly daring to undertake the task of writing one as a first venture, I did what was infinitely more absurd, I determined to complete and publish one already half-written.

What the impulse is that induces so many young writers, timorous to the last degree, to tempt an unfavorable verdict on their capacity by offering to the reading world not a work homogeneous in character and the result of their very best effort, but the unrelated fragments of self-acknowledged immaturity, I do not know; but the history of literature shows that the course I decided upon was no exception to the general rule. Why I was so foolish as to tempt certain disap-

pointment by publishing anything, I cannot understand. I could not have had any message of importance to utter upon any subject. If "reading makes a full man," as my Lord of Verulam declares, I had some reason to suppose that was my condition; and believing, as I did, that the capacity to produce literature depended mainly on one's opportunity and inclination to absorb literature, I suppose I felt that a first effort was to be regarded more as a test of that capacity than as a real contribution to literature.

It may seem surprising that I should have arrived at a conclusion without specific advice in regard to a matter of so much importance. An explanation is, no doubt, to be found in the fact that I had but few intimate friends; and fewer still to whom I would have been willing to entrust such a confidence, or whom I would have deemed capable to advise in the matter; perhaps, with the exception of the college president and professor already referred to, there was but one whom I would have dared to consult. I was never greatly given to taking advice, and in this matter least of all, since the fear of ridicule for my presumption made it almost impossible that I should confide in another, at least, until the matter had become a certainty. Some people are gifted, it seems, in complaisant ability to solicit and adopt friendly suggestions in regard to their personal affairs — to order their lives, as it were, upon plans and specifications furnished by others. In this quality I have ever been wofully lacking. It has rarely occurred to me to ask advice until my own mind was fully made up, when there is, of course, little need for it; only method remains to be considered. In the few instances in which I have done otherwise, the result has rarely been satisfactory, and, whatever may be the sum total of my life-work, I fancy that when the end comes one thing will be true of it to a somewhat unusual degree; its failures and successes will have been my own. Whether wisely or foolishly, I have in most cases followed my own bent rather than another's counsel.

Just what inclined me to publish a volume composed of fragments, instead of writing a story which should be altogether a fresh effort, I do not know. Until very recently there was extant a synopsis and several chapters of a novel which I then planned to write. It was absurdly ambitious, yet I have often wished that I had attempted its execution. Aside from the serious character of such an undertaking, however, the difficulty attending the preparation of the manuscript was especially great, since most of my work had to be done lying face downward on a couch and writing upon a large book. After a time I used a low, broad stool which my father made for that purpose. Taken at the best, it was a difficult and discouraging method of composition. The magnitude of the task, in a literary sense, ought to have appalled me; but I have no recollection that it did. I remember how clearly the characters and situations stood out before me, and I do not think I felt unequal to the task of writing a novel upon the lines I had selected. It is no doubt a fortunate thing that I abandoned the attempt. I was not then old enough to see the world as it is, or strong enough to paint it truly as I saw it. A novel written at that time, even if it had found a publisher, would have been sure to evoke so much and so well-deserved disapproval as to have deterred me forever after from any similar attempt. I can hardly contemplate such a contingency now without a peculiar thrill of pain. The characters I have shaped, during many years of work as a writer of fiction, have become just as much actualities to me as the conditions against which they have been projected, and stand out in my memory to-day as the most real things in a very busy life.

Whatever may have been the reason influencing me to that course, the book I decided, after much cogitation, to publish was, of all things, a volume of poems.

I had written verse almost from childhood. Almost every poet whose works I had read, at least every one I admired, had impressed me with a desire to imitate his methods, and to some extent, no doubt, to work over his thoughts. Some of my least pretentious efforts seemed to me not without merit; some of them have held a kindly place in my memory ever since. I sorted them out with truly Radamanthine sternness, condemning the weaker children of my brain to death, not exactly without scruple, but certainly without relenting.

In addition to these, I had already begun a poem based upon the conditions

attending the outbreak of the Civil War. They seemed to me then, as they have ever since appeared, the most remarkable and pathetic the world has ever witnessed. The struggle of one people for the liberties and opportunity of another, — the voluntary offering up of thousands of lives for the vaguest of principles, seemed to me more noble and romantic than the traditions of the "Table Ronde," — or any legend of a nearer past. So, day after day, I wrought upon my poem, lying on my couch, and writing with a pencil on the pages of a blank book which I had bought at an auction sale a year before, having even then a half-formed notion of some such use to which it might be put.

As the winter days grew shorter, the poem grew longer and — dearer. I shall never forget how some of its lines and situations impressed me. With the new year, the second of the great war, my poem drew near completion. Is it any wonder that it was full of the roar and smoke of battle? That it traced effect to cause and builded prophecy of the future upon the facts of the past? Truly, it is no more strange than that the work of the smith should have the smell of the forge upon it.

Up to this time I had told no one my purpose. There was no one to tell except my father, and somehow I shrank from confiding in him. Despite the warmth of his nature, there was a sternness about him that repelled while it attracted. Save the friendly doctor who came now and then, I saw hardly any one. Through long absences from home, the young people of the neighborhood had become almost strangers to me. Besides that, my friends had scant welcome in my father's house. It was no doubt, well for me, that I was thus situated. I was accustomed to seclusion, and was thus protected from the excitement which would have attended frequent visits, thus securing that absolute repose which was the sole foundation of such restoration as came afterwards. It was good for the work I had in hand, too, the only serious task of self-expression I had ever set myself. Lying there upon the couch through the dim winter days, I wrought with a curious persistency which has been at the bottom of whatever success I have since attained. The verses may have had little merit, but none of them were defective from any lack of care. Such as they were, they were the very best of which I was capable. Had I dared to be myself, they might have been better; but I had not yet learned that literature is merely the window by which one soul looks into another, and that its value depends not alone on the transparency of the panes, but especially on what is to be seen through them. I polished the panes as well as I might, and if what was visible through them was neither original nor attractive, it was the best I had to offer the inlooker; at least the best I dared reveal.

At length the manuscript was complete — a mass of limp leaves which I cut out of the great manilla letter-book in which they had been carefully transcribed. I think it was the first and last time I ever saw a complete manuscript of which no part had been printed. Usually a few sheets have been written, rushed off to the printer, and when the type had been set, more had been ready to follow. I even doubt whether it would ever be possible for me to complete a work on any except the "instalment plan." More than once I have begun the publication of a serial with only one or two chapters complete, anxious and troubled because I had not more ahead, and working on with ever-increasing relish as the plot unfolded, the published parts serving as a stern restriction on the tendency to revise which is always a deterrent to the work of an over-scrupulous writer.

[To be concluded in the January number.]

The learned Archdeacon Farrar, now Dean of Canterbury, has just prepared, for issue in the "Popular Biblical Library," a history of The Herods, whose alien dominion was deservedly execrated in Judæa. The work affords scope for the author's ripe scholarship and masterly command over the details of Jewish and Roman history, and will doubtless be welcomed alike by the Biblical student and by the general reader. The career of the Herodian princes is, we know, coincident for several generations "with events of unparalleled importance to the human race." The life of Christ on earth was spent under the sway of three of these historic personages, including Herod the Great, who played a hated part in the annals of the Jewish people. The work commences with an animated account of the condition of the Jews subsequent to the Babylonish captivity, and is carried on through the events which occurred in the time of Christ to the final catastrophe — the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.

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THE ANGLO-DANISH HOME OF OUR FOREFATHERS

MANY are fond of speculating on the origin of all life, but less thought, observes a writer in the current number of the "Westminster Review," to whom we owe the present paper, is devoted to the more homely question of the cradle of our race. If children of the New World sometimes search for the hamlet that a good pilgrim-ancestor was forced to abandon in tears, few modern men of English speech, however deep-rooted in the past, set foot on the soil from which Hengist and Horsa, at the head of their band of robbers, started on their shameful raid to dispossess the Celt. Although these chieftains have been bidden to vanish in a mist of legend and become one with Romulus, few will be disposed to doubt that the province of Schleswig-Holstein is the great mother of all that is most precious and permanent in our language, our laws, and our life.

No haven in Europe welcomes more merchandise from the great waters than the estuary of the Elbe. What a privilege it might seem to dwell in one of these charming villas on the green, well-wooded banks and watch the countless vessels of every land and clime that pass all day long backwards and forwards from Hamburg! The fishing village of Blankenese with its winding terraces and roofs is almost as picturesque as Capri, and far more clean and healthful. From a tower on its highest ridge, the whole river and woodland may be taken in at a glance.

The largest city in the province is the suburb Altona, with its hundred and fifty thousand souls, built too near to Hamburg, as the word is explained. In the days of Danish vassalage she attracted regal attention and aroused the jealousy of her neighbor. But the statue of Conrad Blücher, who saved her from being burnt by furious French soldiers when the century was in its teens, and the eagle surmounting the brave who fell in the last war, attest the loyalty of the inhabitants to their true German fatherland. An ethnological museum is kept open on Sundays, when the river baths are shut.

The heather on the road to Schleswig is suggestive of English moorland; but the features and accent of the people reveal still more resemblance to their cousins over the water. The moonlight is as magical as the sunset on the wide purple stretches where few villages or homesteads serve to remind the wayfarer of work-a-day sorrow and care. At length the cottage-gardens, with their sunflowers and red tiles, in the early hours of morning hold out a hope that the end of the journey is near. Children are playing on the grass and old folk making the best of the daylight that is still their own.

The old dome of Schleswig, with its lofty modern tower, allures the stranger to hurry along the winding street or by the shore of the Schlei that flows in from the Baltic. Only the prattle of maidens or the scent of new-washed seaweed may arrest his steps for a moment. The oaken altar-piece within dates from the sixteenth century, the work of Hans Bruggemann under the influence of Dürer. German writers on art often point to it as a landmark in the history of wood-carving.

A small grass courtyard (perhaps about as large as the Campo-Santo at Pisa), with walls and frescoes and pillars, leads out from a door in the building. One almost wonders if princes will awake sooner to judgment than the souls of serfs and infants. Over one of the tombs may be read the strange inscription: *Dum vivimus moriendum est ne moriamur quando morimur;** rather a contrast to the counsel of the greatest of German poets.

In spite of the color on the ceiling and curious side chapels, it is hard not to feel the force of Moltke's suggestion that Protestant churches should not be too large, as sermons appeal only to hundreds, while the mass is comforting to thousands. But the rose-trees in front of the houses in the clean and quiet streets may please, perhaps, some more than sermon or mass, whatever be their fancied attitude towards the riddle of life. From the summit of an iron tower

* Transl.: "We must die while we live, lest we should die when we die."—(Cf. St. Mark viii., 35.)

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in the green field outside, where cattle graze in the sunshine, the little straggling town and silver sheet of water seem almost as restful as a grey cathedral city in the midst of English landscape. Even the corner of Brittany that gave birth to Renan could hardly have been more dreamlike. But the Teuton is less sensitive than the Celt, and fairies rather than saints wander in these pleasant pastures. Sea-gulls in the month of March gather in the little island in the middle of the Schlei called after their name.

The dominion of the German language extends as far as Flensburg and its delightful ford. The changing effects of storm and sunshine on woods and windmills and housetops (mostly of red tile) may be studied best from the water, where steamboats constantly ply. Commerce and industry are thriving and the streets look busy and bright. The skill of the sculptor Thorwaldsen is shown in a marble sphinx in the cemetery above the town. At even, when the mills are at rest, a sort of blissful forgetfulness of all unpleasant things steals through the soft sea air:—

"Gut Nacht denn, all ihr Müden,
Ihr Lieben nah und fern;
Nun ruh' auch ich in Frieden
Bis glänzt der Morgenstern." *

Some 2,000 visitors go every year to Glücksburg to bathe and amuse themselves in the midst of pine-trees and flowers. Officers in full uniform cry "Donnerwetter" at tennis to fair unwarlike girls. If a permanent treaty could be arranged between Germany and England, by which all colonial disputes might be settled by a few friendly rounds, no serious danger to British interests need arise.

The stately castle on the lake, with its quaint Renaissance chapel, contains the tombs of the House that sits on the throne of Denmark. It has passed into Prussian hands, but members of the old family sometimes enter it to pray where their forefathers prayed and sleep. The pulpit is above the altar, and on one of the walls is a portrait of Martin Luther, with his version of the Bible in his hands.

* Transl.:

"Good night, then, all ye weary;
Ye dear ones, near and far;
I, too, will rest in peace
Till shines the morning star."

Not many miles distant, on the northern bank of the ford, are the famous heights of Düppel. There the forces of Denmark vanished from the historic stage (perhaps never to return) a third of a century ago. Only a red dog salutes wanderers from the windmill where the foredoomed warriors held out. A pillar of pride is adorned with the figures of Prussian captains, including the Red Prince, the copy of the great Frederick in more ways than one.

Yet, whatever view may be taken of the motives of Prussian statesmen, it cannot be doubted that the Danes were really in the wrong. A recent biographer of the Queen commends her wisdom in using all her influence to prevent England from interfering at the call of old-world chivalry, when the weight of public opinion was on the weaker side, by want of special knowledge. The poet Geibel expressed the German view of the matter in his breezy "Protest-Lied," urging the tillers of the soil, from whom the conquerors of Albion arose, to break the Danish yoke:—

"Wir alle hier sind, alt und jung,
Aus deutschen Thon geknetet,
Wir haben deutsch gescherzt beim Trunk,
Und deutsch zu Gott gebetet.
Man soll uns schenken deutschen Wein
Und deutsche Satzung schreiben,
Wir wollen keine Dänen sein,
Wir wollen Deutsche bleiben." *

Moltke once spoke of war as a sacred thing which kept the noblest feelings alive and saved the nations of the world from falling into hideous materialism. This may not impossibly be true, as far as it goes, but there is another side to the picture. The burning of villages, the violation of maids, the death of the happiest and least useless to the world before their due time — not to mention all the miseries of cholera, drunkenness, and dirt that follow in the track of armies — might serve to make monarchs pause even in moments of passion. Bismarck himself confesses that no one who has once seen the rolling eyes of a soldier expiring on the field will embark on a

* Transl.:

"All of us here, both old and young,
Are made of German clay,
In German jest we, when we drink,
To God in German pray.
Let German wine be poured for us,
Words German written be;
No Danes will ever we become,
Forever German we."

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frivolous war. The best and most attractive item in the programme of the German Socialists is their hopeful dream of the day when man may at length have triumphed over the animal that is in him.

The old thatched roofs have been forbidden by the police, and are yielding to red tiles, along the northern bank. A little cottage in Sonderburg is covered with festal fir-green to announce the golden wedding of an aged couple. Their children are asleep on the hillside, across which all the winds of heaven blow so madly in winter time, forgetful of comrades and foemen. *Natura non contristatur;* but perhaps those tears and prayers have not been utterly in vain.

During the bombardment of the town, the proprietor of a comfortable inn concealed himself in his cellar, and left others to settle whether he should be a German or a Dane. According to his own recollection and the photograph hanging on his wall, the chief street became a dismal scene of wreckage, not altogether unlike the street of the tombs in Pompeii after the fiery shower. Nowadays it is none the less refreshing to swim just before sunset, when a sort of spectral blood-glare invests the hill and sea, and pray for peace in our lifetime.

The harbor of Kiel, to which steamers ply along the restful coast-land, was no small gain to German self-consciousness and strength. A fleet of formidable ironclads, the favorite children of the Emperor, attest the change of ownership; but it still remains the market for such fatty substances as the Danish islands produce. Besides the naval school, of markedly modern origin, is an older and more ideal temple. New buildings have been reared for some 600 students, but the *mater scientiæ* boasts two centuries behind her and several great names.

The little town of Eutin, in the so-called Switzerland of Holstein, deserves a passing notice. There Tischbein was born and Voss kept his school. The house of the idyllic poet has been transformed into an inn, but possesses paintings on glass of scenes out of his "Louise." The neighboring woodlands that encompass the silvery lake of Plön, an ancient cloister of Preetz, may, perhaps, be termed the most delightful corner of the province.

But the landscape beyond the woods displays a sudden change. The wild west winds and large air of the North Sea form a complete contrast to the soft shelter of the pine-trees, where moss and blue-bells abound. A sort of prosaic flatness, destructive to dream and fancy, pervades the whole scene. The sights and sounds of the market-place in the old town of Heide (which burnt a reformer to death during the age of Luther) rather recall the canvas of certain Dutch masters.

The fishing-village of Busum attracts visitors in summer on account of its breeziness and bathing. Even at the end of the season romantic attachments may arise over wine and music and song. For the German remains a German, and the great victory of Sedan has not managed to destroy the *naïve* idealism portrayed in Schiller's "Song of the Bell." A living poet appeals to his whole nation as follows: —

"O last euch nie berauben
Die alte Schwärmerei
Für Frauen und Freiheit und Glauben;
Bleib unentwegt dabei." *

The peasants of Dittmarsch are a strong and valorous race of men, as is shown in their old struggles against the Dukes of Holstein. Nor have they yet lost their solid and stubborn reputation. A third-class railway compartment may afford a curious insight into their ways and habits.

Two famous writers first began to think about the old Romans in their midst. The boyhood of Niebuhr was spent in the lonely village of Meldorf, and Mommsen was born at Garding, within sound of the sea. If Niebuhr was himself steeped in somewhat mawkish sentiment, and did not always display Roman qualities in action, his earliest and most sacred memories may, at any rate, have helped to guide his admiration aright. His more brilliant supplanter in his own special field has never ceased to believe in the value of freedom and progress.

The marshland is rich in cattle, and the waters of the Elbe are favorable to the goddess of the golden horn. A freshness and love of enterprise, not always to be found among Germans of

*Transl.:
"O let them never rob you
Of the truth your fathers swore
To woman, faith, and freedom;
But keep it evermore."

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the south, belong to the children of the soil. From Brunsbuttel the new canal conveys vessels to the Baltic; but only the sheaves of corn and comfortable red homesteads lend it a certain charm when the roses of summer are fading. At Cuxhaven, on the opposite shore, Heine wrote his superb cycle of North Sea poems, the most creative product of his petulant and wayward lyre.

The waves beat mournfully on the sand, and storms sweep over the flat and seemingly dull stretches. A church tower or two may fall in, in a space of a hundred years, but the toilers of earth and sea go on with their changeless tasks. A strange sense of relief, as though one had escaped shipwreck, or something of a selfish joy in the sense of a brighter lot, may seize an œnophilist* who sups a few hours afterwards in the warm Ratskeller at Bremen. But he will not fail to look back on his last ramblings with pleasure and cherish a warm affection for a hardy and kindred race.

MAURICE TODHUNTER.

* A lover of wine.

DOCTORS, AND CHEERFULNESS IN THEIR CALLING

THE medical profession is, of all professions, "the most cheerful and contented." The aphorism is one for which an eminent English physician (Sir James Crichton-Browne) is responsible. It was given utterance to in a striking address, delivered recently in England to the faculty of medicine at Mason College, Birmingham, by the distinguished surgeon whose name we have mentioned, and who is widely known by his writings on mental diseases, and the physiology and pathology of the nervous system. The qualities eulogized in the medical man cannot have escaped notice by those who come in contact with members of the profession, or who have seen the almost habitual cheerfulness which they manifest in the sick-room, and know how ready they are to respond good naturedly to every call upon them, at whatever inconvenience, in the trying ordeals and exactions of their beneficent calling. Commenting on the address, the London "Spectator," in a recent issue, asked: "Is the alleged fact of a remarkable cheerfulness among doctors true, and, if true, what is its explanation?" Our contemporary has its own interesting answer, and thus entertainingly deals with the matter:—

On the surface, it might well be supposed that a doctor would be among the most pessimistic of mortals. It is his daily duty to penetrate into nature's darker secrets and more repulsive aspects. He is familiar with the foulest ravages of disease. He sees the cancer slowly forming, the bone eaten gradually away, the heart growing feebler and feebler, the brain paralyzed, the limbs shrunk into slender sticks by consumption. The terrible secrets of a young man's ruined health, of a fair young girl's decline, of a strong man's paralysis, of the fatal germs of disease in a smiling child, are all laid bare before him. He sees beauty changed into ashes, and mourning substituted for the oil of joy. He is liable to interruptions and discomforts scarcely known to any other calling. The lawyer has his fixed time of work, the clergyman his regular hours of devotions and ministrations, the workman leaves the mill when the bell rings, the clerk leaves business behind him when he locks the office door; but the doctor is liable to be called at any moment. He may be roused from a warm bed to face the eager and nipping air of an early winter morning to attend some stricken wretch whose hours he knows are numbered, and for whom he can do practically nothing. He may be called from pleasant society to cure some wounded laborer in a dirty cottage, or to bring alleviations to a widow and her poverty-stricken child in the last stages of some fell disease.

The creed, too, of medicine would scarcely, one would think, inspire its devotees with confidence and hope. The Christian preacher, believing in man as the offspring of an all-perfect, all-wise God, commits all troubles into Divine hands, and derives a solace and a strength which no mere earthly comfort can afford. But medicine is supposed to be based on a purely material view of man. The doctor may be a profound believer, but, *qua* doctor, he is assumed to diagnose his human subject from a purely physical

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plane; and what is man, from the physical side, but as the grass which withereth? Therefore the superficial observer might well imagine that to the physician, weighted with his load of care and his accumulation of sad and frightful memories, this "majestical firmament fretted with golden fire" would be, as to Hamlet, a pestilential congregation of vapors, and that, like Faust, he would be devoured by the *welt-schmerz*, be gray and worn with deep-seated cynicism and heartache. "Yet," says Sir James Crichton-Browne, "the doctor is the most cheerful of men," and we believe it to be largely true.

How shall we explain this seeming paradox, for it must be partly, at least, capable of explanation? We think that the medical profession, in the first place, attracts a certain type of man. The lethargic, the lymphatic, the nervous, the timid, the dyspeptic do not take readily to this calling, for they know that it demands energy, courage, quickness of sight, capacity for human intercourse, the qualities of the eager and resourceful man. The high spirits of the medical student, about which so much has been said and written, testify to a superabundance of initial virility, to a full-blooded constitution, to a great store of fresh animal spirits. When this generally vigorous and occasionally rowdy person has toned down and taken up his position of responsibility, when the overplus of the animal energy has spent itself, the residuum gives just the right measure of healthy human elements which go to the making of an energetic man. Therefore, when we call in the doctor we summon to our aid in most cases a man whose large, fluid nature can overflow into our narrower and exhausted nature, and can quicken our latent energies into a fuller and more active life.

We are quite persuaded that the personality of a doctor counts for almost as much as his prescriptions in all cases of a nervous or anæmic character, where the patient needs reassurance, where he needs hearty human help. On this account we should rather deprecate, except in certain cases, too much resort to specialists. Of course the services rendered by very learned men are incalculable, but the specialist is apt to give you his science, not himself. You need the science, but you also need the warm, human personality, the friendly shake of the hand, the kindly smile, the cheery countenance, the wholesome, sound common sense that we generally associate with the best doctors. Our point is that, owing to men of a particularly virile and fluid nature taking up the medical calling, we are likely to find them, after the superabundance of mere youthful animalism has evaporated, optimistic, resourceful, kindly, and human; and we believe that this has much to do with their comparative success.

But the cheerfulness of doctors is probably due to a deeper cause than the possession of a cheerful temperament or high animal spirits. They have, to a large extent, conquered fears which still hold possession of the mass. Men are like children in presence of some object of terror which they do not understand, and which they consequently fear. There is really nothing in a dark room to cause alarm, any more than in a room into which the noonday sun is shining, yet the child fears the dark. The doctor, on the other hand, resembles the exceptional child who has got over his alarm, and who has found his way about. The secrets of the dark have no longer any terror for him, and he can begin to reassure his frightened little comrades. The doctor knows the secrets, at least he knows more than we do; he has got over his fright, and feels more at home in the world than do other people. Scientific knowledge and the scientific temper are still so rare in the world that, even to educated men, the laws of life are by no means clear, and the world seems more dominated by chance and accident than it does to the genuine man of science. We may also discern the point where science and art meet in contemplation of the Cosmos, the ordered whole revealing itself on the one side as beauty, on the other as law.

This latter aspect is ever present to the true scientific mind who knows, like Bishop Butler, that "things are what they are, and their consequences will be what they will be," and who is strengthened and nerved by this reassuring certainty. The doctor may, indeed, say with Arthur Hugh Clough:—

> "It fortifies my soul to know
> That though I perish, truth is so."

This is not the very highest vision of the soul, but it is a noble and steadying

influence, imparting vigor and buoyancy to the mind, and this is the faith of the true doctor. But even beyond this possession of a knowledge that the world is the outcome of purpose and law, the doctor has another reason for his perennial cheerfulness in the fact that he sees results. He knows positively that his life's work is not useless or aimless. It must be a source of the deepest satisfaction, and even joy, for a physician to see a healthy organism growing up under his fostering care; to see the roses once more bloom on a faded cheek, to hear and feel the regular pulsations after a long agony of fever, to see the eye brighten, to feel the rounding of the muscles, to know that health is regaining its sway, and to know that he, himself, has been, apart from nature, the first agent for working out this beneficent result. No wonder that the Greeks regarded the healing art as specially divine, for a purer satisfaction than this of the good physician is surely unknown to man.

So many of us never see aught resulting from the travail of our soul, particularly in these days of specialized industry and complex processes. The writer may indulge the hope that he has touched men's hearts or roused their intellects, but he is not quite sure. The workman is but a pin in a vast machine, whose total product he perhaps never sees. The preacher is often sick at heart over man's indifference or disbelief, and is inclined to wait for his results in the next world. But the doctor sees the issue of his labor before him, being, in this respect, like the husbandman and like all those men whose callings lie close to nature. The doctor has studied the functions and parts of the body, and disease affords him the opportunity to see for himself how perfect are those laws which regulate this wondrous frame.

Therefore, though at first sight medicine seems to be founded on a merely materialist view of life, the best doctors have always come to perceive a "something far more deeply interfused," and, as Sir J. Crichton-Browne says, in this interesting lecture, "the more deeply one goes in science, the more one is inevitably led to a spiritual view of the world which cancels all chance and accident in one great, reassuring confidence that we are in the very midst of a rational order." Nothing confirms a man's optimism more certainly than such a faith. If one actually perceives the beneficent results of one's own labors, and is led to connect that result with the beneficent process of a nature which is the expression of a perfect will and an unerring reason, is not such a life one of the very highest in happiness that this world can know?

CITY *VERSUS* COUNTRY LIFE

THE tendency to go to extremes characterizes not only the eager reformer but, to some extent, each individual. Like all other good things, concentration of thought on one idea may easily carry one too far. In fact, in any department of thought, persistent looking at one side of a question inevitably compels the final acceptance of that side as the only true one. Those who always live in the country at last come to think that there is very little good elsewhere, and residents in the city become so attached to the advantages and excitements of life there that they cannot bear the thought of spending more than a few weeks annually in the monotonous, dead-and-alive country. They are heartily glad of a short vacation there, but only that they may have more strength for city life. That both places have their own peculiar advantages and disadvantages is as true as that an exclusive dweller in either can be told at sight.

City life broadens sympathy, rouses activity, gives polish, and weakens individuality; country life narrows sympathy, confines activity in narrow channels, and fosters strength and an independent spirit. In the one, the stream of time smooths the pebble of life until the sharper corners are destroyed. In the other, the progress down the stream is so slow that the accretive process develops natural angularity faster than it can be worn off.

Broadly speaking, the city personifies beauty, the country beauty and strength both. Great men invariably are born, and for the first twenty or thirty years of their life are developed, in the country.

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after which only the larger field of action supplied by the city can satisfy them. Poets, and a few isolated cases in other fields, are exceptions to this rule, their finer intuitions supplying more readily the results achieved — though only in part, usually — by those of wider intercourse with their kind. It is an old thought, that of the country, as the heart of the world, supplying the blood-force for the city. Too deeply is it true that the current returns so seldom to the vitalizing influences of its source that it becomes weak and poor indeed.

A sound bodily constitution is of primary importance for children, and that this is more readily obtained by bringing them up in the country, probably none will dispute. A child that has lived its first fifteen or even ten years under the benign influences of pure air, abundant exercise and — as is always the case except with the lowest class — more wholesome food, is better prepared physically for all strains on the body, and, if physically, then mentally. The finer and richer qualities of the mind may well wait for their development till the sound basis of good health has been laid, though this would not seem to be necessary to an extent really injurious to soul or mind.

Moreover, all demoralizing influences and temptations are less prominent and enticing where men do least congregate, a point which, when the question of residence comes up, should have great weight. Usually, until a soul is forced to face sin, the less it is thrust in its way the better. Never fear to weaken character by hiding from it knowledge of evil. On the contrary, characters best strengthened in good are the ones best capable of resisting evil, because, despite pessimists, like Nordau, they are the most natural, and they will so strengthen only by keeping all alloys out as long as possible. Be sure they will crawl in fast enough, in this age of the world! The influences of the country are in the line of virtue.

On the other hand, constant mingling with men broadens the man, inclines him to toleration, and perhaps charity, and refines him outwardly. The mind is widened by being more or less compelled to consider a multitude of affairs, and the tendency to view them from our standpoint alone is, to some extent, counteracted perforce. The outward barriers of a selfish reserve and a false egoism largely break down before the gentle but steady assaults of others, until a man learns that he must give in order to receive, and until he finds his level. The need of holding his own in the struggle of life quickens his brain in every way. Egoity rarely develops into morbidness, the mental faculties keeping too even a balance. There is danger of over-excitement, of dissipation of energy, in too many channels, of careless habits; but against these a man must oppose prudence and will-power. Observation is active, and judgment therefore is more often called into action. The beauties of the man-created world, the world of art, are more open to him, and the sweetnesses of friendly intercourse descend on him oftener and may be more freely enjoyed.

To the majority of people, the realm of deep consecutive thought is an unknown one. They flock to the city, where the bustle and hurry of multitudes supplies a surface-life, a counterfeit life, which satisfies though it cheats them. Acquaintance with self is hindered; outward things intrude too often and too persistently for that to grow. Only the strongest of souls can remain isolated when in a crowd, and depth usually gives place to fleeting trifles. But to offset these things, in part, qualities formerly unknown to the man himself may be birthed by circumstances, and opposition may rouse him, not only to display the full force of his nature, but to use means for increasing his abilities.

The ideal life is that lived continuously under the beneficent influences of native mother earth, yet in a place not so far removed from the populous town but that its advantages may be enjoyed at will and at small cost of time and money. To say that if all should adopt this course no such advantages could exist, is idle; the chance is so small that it may be said not to be. The old fable of Antæus is still true; we are renewed in strength each time we touch mother earth. Man is impure, nature pure, and intimacy with nature fortifies man against the evil in others and in self. Our higher native longings reach out for a larger measure of that generosity, that largeness, that peace felt in the country, and life takes on a nobler and braver aspect where the scale of

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literal measurement is much greater.

Pessimism flourishes only in the city; optimism is an inhabitant of the country. Our surroundings mould us more than we give them credit for, and the pure breathings of nature sensibly and insensibly urge its comrades to harmonize their lives with its own, while the trend of life in a city is to conform to a lower and ever lower standard. Such is the tendency, whether we realize it or not. Many are roused and strengthened in virtues by the very opposition they encounter; in others — and are not these the majority? — opposition at last weakens, and evil ways grow.

The wise man judges largely, and, in great measure, by the study of tendencies. He who is able to analyze himself, observe his own tendencies, and live in that place, city or country, where he can best help his fellow-man, and at the same time purify and develop himself, is wise with that wisdom which includes happiness.

CHAS. P. NETTLETON.

OUGHT THE MEMBERS OF THE CABINET TO HAVE SEATS IN CONGRESS?

A SINGLE clause in the Constitution of the United States implies, but does not actually designate, the Cabinet. In Article II, Section III, the President is empowered to "require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subjects relating to the duties of their respective offices." The word "Cabinet" has no original signification in this country. Walter Bagehot, the English publicist and writer on the English Constitution, has defined it as follows: "A committee of the legislative body selected to be the executive body." This definition, however, is good only of the English Cabinet. For both American and foreign commentators regard the Cabinet of the United States simply as a board of heads of departments. Such indeed it is, and we may properly consider whether this condition is the most desirable that we can imagine.

Whatever our final conclusion about this, we must admit that the powers of Cabinet officers in the United States are extremely restricted. Mulford, with his liberal views, points out the wider powers which Cabinet officers might have. "The high offices," he says, "of a minister of department of administration are imperfectly organized. Their growth and number are beyond the provision of the Constitution and are to be determined in the historical necessity of the State. While their immediate relations and administrative responsibility is due to the executive, they are more than merely its registrars." In these closing words we have a suggestion towards a solution of the problem. Cabinet officers ought to be more than the mere registrars of the Executive.

The Cabinet owes its existence to the fact that it is physically impossible for the President personally to attend to all the details of the executive department. The Cabinet officers act for him, and are responsible to him alone. They may give him advice, and therefore it behooves the President to see that his advisers are men whose opinions are worth having. He, however, is not bound to follow their advice, nor, indeed, need he ask it on all occasions.

The American Cabinet, then, forms no vital part of the Government, and in this respect the American system is in marked contrast with the English system, wherein the Ministers corresponding practically to our Secretaries, have an important part in framing the policy of the Government. The power of the Executive in England "consists in the influence of the crown exercised through the Minister and his adherents in the House of Commons." In this country, the Secretaries can simply report as experts upon matters of State. In England public opinion can concentrate itself and act effectively upon the Parliament wherein the Ministers have seats. In this country public opinion is dispersed and cannot act effectively upon the three branches — House, Senate, and President.

One reason for this state of affairs is found in the fact that the framers of our Constitution derived many of their ideas for the government of the new Republic

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from the Government of England as it existed in 1787. Since that time England has seen many important constitutional changes, but the inelastic Federal Constitution remains practically unmodified. George III. was opposed to Cabinet Government, but in the present century the power of the British monarch has gradually decreased and the power of the Minister has increased, until we have in England to-day a form of government through which the voice of the people may be fully expressed.

The English ministers have two sets of duties:—

1. As Heads of Departments. 2. As Heads of Legislature.

They have seats in Parliament, they introduce bills in which they are interested, and take an active part in debate. In England the Ministers settle the details of public measures, subject to the requirements of the Administration and the criticism of Parliament. "The people are first asked if they wish to have some general principle carried out. If they say 'Yes' and elect a Parliament in favor of it, a Minister takes office who prepares a bill in accordance with this principle. If Parliament and the Ministry differ as to the bill, recourse is again had to the people to say which they prefer." Although the majority of the English people have very vague ideas about free trade, local government, and similar questions, they know that Mr. Gladstone or Lord Salisbury and their ministerial colleagues stand for certain general views of these questions and that it will rest with the Ministry to shape the details.

In strong contrast with the English system this is the method whereby a measure is carried through Congress. Imagine, for example, some bill in which the Secretary of the Treasury is interested. He cannot go upon the floor himself; his only means of communication is by letter. Using this means he at the same time has to have appointed over the Finance Committee a chairman who favors his bill. He must hope that the chairman will prevail upon the committee to recommend that bill; and, finally, he trusts that this committee will persuade the House to adopt the bill. The bill may be a most necessary one; yet if the Secretary cannot persuade the chairman, if the chairman cannot persuade the committee, if the committee cannot persuade Congress, who shall be blamed for the failure of the measure?

Or, again, information may be desired in Congress upon some important point connected with one of the departments. A resolution calling for this information must be offered by a member of Congress on Resolution Day. The House may adopt, reject, or refer this to a standing committee. If accepted, it is engrossed by the clerk, signed, certified, and forwarded by messenger to the Secretary who sends to the Bureau for the information; thence the information is returned to the Secretary who decides whether or not he ought to impart his knowledge to Congress. If the answer is sent to Congress, it is often unintelligible, for the reason that such a message can rarely be full enough; or it may happen that so long a time has elapsed since the question was asked that no one has any interest in the answer. Congressional government is thus seen to be Committee Government. Parliamentary Government, on the contrary, is Government by a responsible Cabinet Ministry. The tenure of office of the American Cabinet is made to depend on the supposition that the functions of members are political rather than ministerial. With no particular policy and no responsibility to the people, the Secretaries stand for no particular idea, and hence cannot be censured when the affairs of the administration go badly. With no power of initiative, acting only as Congress votes, they are hampered to a degree that impairs their efficiency. Were the Secretaries members of Congress with a voice in all debates, each Secretary could immediately give personally much information on matters relating to his department, and much time now spent in profitless discussion would be saved.

At present it is difficult really to learn definitely the exact qualification of a member of the American cabinet; he may have much or little knowledge about his department. He may attend to details himself, or he may leave everything to subordinates; but when he is required to appear in Congress, it will quickly be possible to determine his qualifications for office; he will be responsible to the people, and thus the efficiency of the government will be increased.

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To all the objections urged against Cabinet Government we might answer that England illustrates well the advantages arising from this system. But some of the objections urged against it, even though answerable, cannot be so briefly dismissed.

In the first place it is objected that a good executive officer may be lacking in deliberative and oratorical power. It would be a pity to exclude from the Cabinet a man who possesses the former but not the latter of these qualifications. It might be a pity were we not assured that a proper combination of these qualities is essential in a Cabinet officer in order that the Government may be properly served, and were we not equally assured that there are men eligible for the high office of Secretary possessing capacity in these three directions.

We cannot regard as lightly the danger that some Secretaries might give more attention to Congress than to their Executive duties. As a preventive of this danger we must look to popular opinion, which in this country is always so freely expressed.

There is still another objection to be considered, namely, that an excellent Secretary may be lost to the country because the Ministry had been defeated on some general question. This is indeed a serious and almost unanswerable objection to Cabinet Government. It has more weight than the fear that the new Secretaries might be chosen less for efficiency in the several Bureaux than for service to party. For this latter state of affairs would differ little from that to which we have long been accustomed.

But we come to more valid objections. Is it not possible that the President, if surrounded by a Cabinet subject to Parliamentary influences, might himself be in a difficult position? Would not the real power pass into the hands of Congress? Would not the President, elected by the people, *seem* to be responsible to the people, whereas freedom of action would really be taken away from him by the Ministry and Congress? What would become of the Presidential prerogative? Under such conditions would not the President become a mere nonentity following the leading of the Cabinet?

In answer to some of these objections, it may be said that even with a Government constituted as ours is now, some Secretary — the power behind the throne — has been known to direct the whole policy of the Administration. In all such cases everything depends upon the character of the President. The people are responsible for him, and must themselves suffer if they have committed an error in electing him. There is a remedy even for those possible occasions when Congress might bully both President and Cabinet as Parliament sometimes bullies the English Ministry.

"With a President elected directly by the people, having the veto power and a Cabinet of his own choosing, Congress would not dare to bully that Cabinet as Parliament bullies the Ministers." In these words Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, who has studied this subject more carefully than anyone else, shows how the evil may be cured.

We may not be able to find in the proposed change a panacea for the political evils of the present day, but we can at least feel sure that the efficiency of the Government would be increased by giving members of the Cabinet seats in Congress. The power of Cabinet officers to-day is too restricted. Instead of being a vital part of the Government, they are mere registrars of the Executive. Unity of Government can be secured, the people can be best served, only by giving members of the Cabinet seats in Congress, by allowing them to introduce bills, by permitting them to take part in debates (if not to vote), and by suffering them, as in England, to make an appeal to the people in questions of great importance. After observing the successful workings of this system in England, can we doubt that with us it would make the Government more efficient to give our Cabinet officers seats in Congress?

HELEN LEAH REED.

A history of the eminent publishing house of Wm. Blackwood & Sons, of Edinburgh and London, with an interesting chronicle of the relations of many prominent authors of the century with the Firm, was the last literary work undertaken by the late Mrs. Oliphant. The two volumes which have appeared, apart from the pathetic interest attaching to a posthumous work, are fascinating reading, as they present an animated picture of a great family of publishers which, from small beginnings, worked its way up to renown by sheer industry and enterprise.

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CANON KINGSLEY'S "WATER-BABIES:"

AN EXPOSITION

THE story of "The Water-Babies," described by its author as "a Fairy Tale for a Land-Baby"—appeared from month to month, in "Macmillan's Magazine," in 1863, and was published in book form the same year. Those who remember its first appearance will be able to recall the very doubtful reception accorded to it by different classes of readers. Some were content to take it as a mere fairy tale, about the meaning of which they need concern themselves no further than to take account of what lay on the surface. And of these some declared themselves amply satisfied with the beauty of the story as thus regarded, whilst others complained that it was mere nonsense. Another class, however, apparently not a very large number, discovered, as they thought, a deeper moral and spiritual meaning in the story, some believing that this meaning extended through the whole book, and others attaching it to particular passages. Whatever view the public at large may have taken, as a matter of fact "The Water-Babies" has had a very large circulation, many different editions having been put forth in Great Britain and in the United States.

It was not long before the present writer became convinced, on the first perusal of the book, that it was not merely a fairy tale of great beauty, but an allegory of remarkable depth, insight and power; a parable of man's spiritual life upon earth. Having arrived at this conclusion, he took upon him to expound its meaning in private and afterwards in public. It was not, perhaps, to be wondered at, that, whilst some accepted his interpretation, others would hear nothing of its containing any such meaning; and, finally, he was challenged to print his explanation, that it might be brought under the eye of the author, whose decision on the subject would, of course, be final. Although the writer had no doubt of the accuracy of his view, which seemed as self-evident to many others as to himself, yet he hesitated to take such a liberty with the writing of a living author.

At last, however, he put forth his version in an English monthly magazine in 1870; and soon afterwards he obtained from Canon Kingsley the assurance: "From beginning to end I desire not one word more or less as regards my meaning." As the following article is, in substance, a reproduction of that earlier one, the reader may feel satisfied that he has here Mr. Kingsley's own meaning, lawfully got out of the story, and not some theory of the expositor's foisted into it. It is with no slight satisfaction that we confirm our judgment of this beautiful book by the testimony of the late Mr. Thomas Hughes, author of "Tom Brown's School Days" and a personal friend of Mr. Kingsley's, put forth in the magazine "Atalanta" (vol. i, p. 530). Mr. Hughes says of "The Water-Babies," "a fairy-tale, as the author calls it, but containing, nevertheless, the most complete and consistent summing up of his matured views on theological, political and social subjects that is to be found in any of his writings." It may be satisfactory to the reader to know that Mr. Hughes' exposition, as far as it goes, is in complete agreement with that which is here given.

There is another allegory with which one can hardly help comparing Kingsley's parable — Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress;" and although the "Water-Babies" is, in comparison, a very slight composition, yet it is no less significant of the age to which it belongs. In the "Pilgrim's Progress," we have a reflection of the sombre spirit of the Puritanism of the time of Charles II., together with the deep sense of sin which was characteristic of the period and the movement. In this respect much has changed in our own days, perhaps for good as well as for evil. In the "Water-Babies" we have the universal prevalence of Law set forth, an idea which would hardly have fitted in with the ordinary conceptions of Puritanism, but which is quite familiar to ourselves.

It is superfluous to remark that the writer makes no pretension to explain every allusion in the story. Indeed, at this distance of time, he is inclined to think that Mr. Kingsley's commendation of his exposition was a little too strong; believing, as he does, that, since

then, he has obtained fresh light on some points of the story. Perhaps the author intended to say that sufficient guidance was then afforded to any one who would take the trouble to think out the story.

The hero of the book is named Tom. He is, in the first period of the story, a chimney sweep, and, in the second and last, a Water-Baby. It will be convenient to take these two parts in the order in which they stand, and to explain their meaning in succession. The first period, as we have said, is the life of Tom as a chimney sweep. The second period, the history of the Water-Baby, may be divided into three parts: first, his life in the river before he helped the lobster out of the pot; secondly, his life in St. Brandan's Isle under the discipline of the fairies, Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did, and Mrs. Do-as-you-would-be-done-by; thirdly, the period from the time when he set off for the Other-end-of-no-where to the end of the story.

There can be no doubt that the first period, that of the chimney sweep life, is intended to represent the life of sin, and of overt, sinful action, not merely sinful principle, ending with Tom's conversion. The change in Tom thus described was brought about by his being convinced of his own dirtiness, and being led to desire a different kind of life. The manner in which the conviction and the desire are aroused within him is very interesting.

Tom and his master, a brutal ruffian named Grimes, are represented as being very dirty, as chimney sweeps might well be in earlier times, when they had to climb chimneys. The conviction of his foulness was begun by an Irish woman. It may be interesting to the reader to know that this character did not appear in the original form of the story; and the present writer was informed by the author that it was added at the suggestion of the late Judge Erskine,— "best of churchmen and of men," as Mr. Kingsley called him, — who thought it better to prepare the reader for the allegorical meaning of the story at an earlier point. The Irish woman represents Conscience and perhaps also Providence.

The Irish woman interfered to prevent Grimes from hurting Tom, and, after several admonitions to the elder man, she added: "Those that wish to be clean, clean they will be; and those that wish to be foul, foul they will be." There is no appearance of any effect being produced by these words. But other influences intervened. Tom, in sweeping the chimneys at Harthover Hall, came down the wrong chimney, into the sleeping apartment of Ellie, the daughter of Sir John Harthover. And when he saw this beautiful, pure creature lying in her bed under the snow-white coverlet, upon the snow-white pillow, he looked at his own wrist, and tried to rub the soot off, and wondered whether it would ever come off. "Certainly," he said, "I should look much prettier then, if I grew at all like her," and looking round, he suddenly saw, standing close to him, a little, ugly, black, ragged figure, with bleared eyes, and grinning white teeth. He turned on it angrily. What did such a little black ape want in that sweet young lady's room? And behold, it was himself reflected in a great mirror, the like of which Tom had never seen before. And Tom, for the first time in his life, found out that he was dirty; and burst into tears with shame and anger.

Tom escaped from the Hall, fled across the park, into the woods, up the moor, and at last scrambled down the Lewthwaite Crag, an almost perpendicular descent, into Vendale, where a little school was kept by Mrs. Grimes, the mother of his master, although he did not know it. This lady declared at first that she would have no chimney sweeps there; but out of compassion gave him milk and put him in an outhouse where he might rest. But he tossed about, and then fell half asleep, and dreamt that he heard the little white lady crying to him: "Oh, you're so dirty; go and be washed," and then he heard the Irish woman saying: "Those that wish to be clean, clean they will be." And then he began to cry out: "I must be clean;" and so threw himself into the river, and became a Water-Baby. Here we have the representation of one type of conversion.

As the life of the chimney sweep represented the life of sin, so the first period of the Water-Baby life represents the life of selfishness or worldliness. It may be proper to remark here that the periods of this story are not all successive; some of them are, or may be, contemporaneous, or even representations of spiritual states having no connection with each other. In the "Pilgrim's Progress" it is proba-

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ble that Bunyan described not merely his own spiritual history, but the normal life of grace — the process by which every one should be saved. This cannot be Kingsley's meaning. Certainly he did not mean that Tom represented a universal experience in either of the two states from which he was delivered.

Tom's life in the river was, undoubtedly, the life of selfishness or worldliness. He had no care but for himself, and he was not particular as to the way in which he found his amusement. Let it be remarked, it is not said that he did anything absolutely wrong. His life here represents worldliness, not what would ordinarily be called sinfulness. But it was a selfish and a worldly life. It was shallow and frivolous, without deep convictions or any serious sense of responsibility, without any earnest purpose or strenuous effort. Tom occupies himself in worrying the caddises, tormenting the little trout, making faces at the otter, chatting with the dragon fly, and flattering the salmon.

The helping of the lobster out of the pot brought a change. The description of this episode is one of the most delightful parts of the whole book; and, when the work was accomplished, Tom entered upon a new experience. "He had not left the lobster five minutes before he came upon a Water-Baby. A real, live Water-Baby sitting on the white sand, very busy about a little point of rock. And when it saw Tom, it looked up for a moment and then cried, 'Why, you are not one of us. You are a new Baby.'" Tom was much surprised. "Well," he said "this is wonderful! I have seen things just like you again and again; but I thought you were shells or sea creatures. I never took you for Water-Babies like myself." We are told to guess the reason for the change which has come over Tom's perceptions; and there is little difficulty in understanding what has happened. Whilst men are living a merely selfish and worldly life, their fellow-creatures are to them simply the means of amusement and entertainment. But just as Tom's act of self-denying kindness to the lobster opened his eyes to see the Water-Babies, so when men go forth towards their fellow-creatures in acts of self-forgetful love and sacrifice, do they recognize their fellow-men as brothers and sisters, as children of the same Father. The reader may find the same principle illustrated in Coleridge's great poem of the "Ancient Mariner." In that case a selfish action led to the isolation of the Mariner from all his kind, and the springing up of a new spirit of love restored him to fellowship with God and man.

Tom is now the representative of the human soul brought into a right relationship to God and man. But the establishment of such a relation is not the completion of the work of spiritual education. The work of life is not yet complete. A protracted discipline must be undergone before the goal of perfection is reached. Kingsley emphasizes this point, and warns us that we must not imagine, because we have started on a new life, that we have therefore left behind us all the habits contracted and consolidated through many years. This is the way in which he conveys the warning. "But I wish Tom had given up all his naughty tricks, and left off tormenting dumb animals, now that he had plenty of playfellows to amuse him. Instead of that, I am sorry to say, he would meddle with the creatures, all but the water-snakes, for they would stand no nonsense. So he tickled the madrepores, to make them shut up; and frightened the crabs, to make them hide in the sand and peep out at him with the tips of their eyes; and put stones into the anemone's mouths, to make them fancy that their dinner was coming. The other children warned him, and said: 'Take care what you are at, Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did is coming.'" And soon Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did came indeed.

She looked at all the children, and, without asking them any questions, gave them all kinds of nice things to eat; and Tom hoped she might be equally kind to him; but she popped into his mouth "a nasty, cold, hard pebble." When Tom remonstrated, she explained that she had done to him as he had done to others; and not only so, but that he had himself told her what he had done. There can be no doubt of the meaning of this part of the story. Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did represents Law, the law of our nature, according to which we reap what we sow. And this explains the seeming ugliness of this fairy, who says:

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"I am very ugly. I am the ugliest fairy in the world; and I shall be till people behave themselves as they ought to do. And then I shall grow as handsome as my sister, who is the loveliest fairy in the world. Her name is Mrs. Do-as-you-would-be-done-by." This latter fairy represents Grace; and the author here points out that, whilst law is repulsive to those who are law-breakers, it is as beautiful as Grace to those whose nature is in harmony with it.

Mrs. Do-as-you-would-be-done-by is a very beautiful fairy, and evidently represents Grace, which does not ask, as Law does, what people have done, and then proceeds to reward them accordingly; but begins by bestowing her good things freely and abundantly. If the passage in which this beautiful lady appears is less striking than the episode of Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did, yet it is very beautiful and significant. When Tom was introduced to her as a new baby, she took him in her arms and laid him in the softest place, and kissed him, and patted him, and talked to him tenderly and low, such things as he had never heard before in his life. Tom fell asleep; and when he woke, the Fairy was telling the children a story "which begins every Christmas eve, and yet never ends at all for ever and ever."

One interesting episode in connection with the time when Tom was under the teaching of Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did should not be passed by. It will be remembered that this good fairy gave the children sweet things corresponding with the good which they had done. But Tom, like many other people, wanted to have this pleasure without having done the work necessary for its enjoyment; and so he got at the box of lollypops on the sly and stole and ate a great quantity of them. Why did not Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did lock up her cabinet and prevent the theft? No, says the author, that is not her way. And so Tom was allowed to get at the sweets. But they made him sick, and he grew all over prickles. It is unnecessary to say much on this point. Those who are resolved to take short and unlawful routes to happiness may do so; but they will not gain their end in that manner.

This brings us to the third and last period of the Water-Baby life, which is introduced by a very remarkable experience in Tom's history. It will be remembered that, when he was sweeping the chimneys in Harthover Hall, he had by mistake come down the chimney of the room of Ellie, the daughter of Sir John. Since that time little Ellie had died, and had also become a Water-Baby, and had lately become one of Tom's teachers. But one thing puzzled Tom very much, and excited his curiosity. Ellie "went home" every Sunday, and Tom wanted to know were she went. "To a very beautiful place," she said. But she could not tell him where it was, nor what it was like; and the author dwells upon this inability as being characteristic of those who are like Ellie. And when Tom asked Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did about it, she told him: "Little boys who are only fit to play with sea-beasts cannot go there. Those who go there must go first where they do not like, and do what they do not like, and help somebody they do not like." Tom found that Ellie had done this, and he suspected that her teaching of him was the thing she had not liked to do; and that he would probably be sent off to help Mr. Grimes. At last, however, he agreed, and set off for the Other-end-of-no-where. The meaning of all this is simple enough. Those who are on a higher plane of spiritual experience cannot give an account of it to those who are below them. Such intelligence can come only by means of the same experience, the experience of self-sacrificing love. The idea may be expressed in many different ways: The Captain of our salvation was made perfect through sufferings. Through much tribulation, in one form or another, the Kingdom must be entered.

In order to obtain guidance on his journey, Tom was directed to Mother Carey, who would tell him the way to the Other-end-of-no-where, where he would find Mr. Grimes. But it was not easy to find Mother Carey, and he made several attempts which ended in failure. On one occasion he was directed to the All-alone-stone where he would find the last of the gair-fowl. This, it may be observed, is the Scotch name for the Great Auk, a now extinct species. This old lady was the last of an ancient race, had a great contempt for all the upstart birds of later origin, and had not condescended to learn any of their ways. The poor

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old thing thought she could guide Tom perfectly well; but when she tried, she found she had forgotten everything, a good representative of the self-sufficient people, who, refusing to believe that they have anything to learn, lose the knowledge which they once possessed.

At last, however, Tom found an old whale who pointed out to him Mother Carey, sitting in the midst of Peace Pool like a pointed iceberg. "There she sits, making old beasts into new all the year round." But when he came near the iceberg, it took the form of the grandest old lady he had ever seen. It will at once be apparent that this lady is Dame Nature. "From the foot of the throne there swam away, out and out into the sea, millions of new-born creatures, of more shapes and colors than man ever dreamed. And they were Mother Carey's children, whom she makes out of the sea-water all day long. He expected, of course — like some grown people who ought to know better — to find her snipping, piecing, fitting, stitching, cobbling, basting, filing, planing, hammering, turning, polishing, moulding, measuring, chiselling, clipping, and so forth, as men do when they go to work to make anything. But, instead of that, she sat quite still with her chin upon her hand, looking down into the sea with two great blue eyes, as blue as the sea itself. Her hair was as white as the snow, — for she was very, very old, — in fact as old as anything you are likely to come across, except the difference between right and wrong."

Every point in this description leads us to think of Nature; and, if it is asked why she was brought in at this particular point, two answers may be given. In the first place, as we have already suggested to our readers, the incidents of this story are not all given in chronological order. There is no contradiction between the work of Law and the work of Nature, for example; and there is no reason why their agencies should not be contemporaneous, as they actually are in human life. On the other hand, Nature, rightly understood, is the true guide of man; not nature in the lower sense, as opposed to reason and conscience, but Nature in the larger and fuller sense, which embraces the whole constitution of man, as it is set forth in Bishop Butler's three sermons on Human Nature. in which the supremacy of reason and conscience is clearly seen: that conscience of which Butler said, "If it had might as it had right, it would rule the world."

Mother Carey gave Tom two directions. She told him to keep his eye on his dog who knew the way well enough, and to go the whole way backwards. Tom was naturally surprised, but we need not further dwell upon their conversation. The meaning is plain enough. The two guides that Nature affords us are Instinct and Experience. We have natural instincts, moral instincts, religious instincts, and we do well to follow them; and if, at any time, we misunderstand their suggestions, experience will correct our errors.

Tom met with several other strange adventures on his journey. Thus, he came to the Island of Laputa, now named the Isle of Tom Toddies, where he met a number of people worshipping and suffering grievously from "their great Idol Examination." Here the author raises a very serious question, and deals with an evil which it is easier to point out than to remedy. Many teachers (and perhaps also learners) sympathize with Professor Freeman's remark, that, when he was at Oxford, they were not being eternally examined, so they had time to learn something. Then Tom came to Old-wives-fable-dom, where a very objectionable person, named the Pow-wow man, is called in to frighten little boys into fits, in order that they may be good. It is not to be supposed that Kingsley denied the utility of fear, to some extent, in the work of human education of whatever kind; and it is quite certain that the abuse against which he utters a warning has greatly abated; but the evil was, and to some extent still is, a very real one.

At last Tom reaches Mr. Grimes and finds him stuck in a chimney, deprived of beer and unable to get his pipe to draw, and otherwise maltreated as Tom had been by himself, when he was his master. He is set forth as an example of hardened impenitence; but the kindness of Tom touches him a little, and higher influences represented by Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did help to waken his dormant conscience, and finally the news of his mother's death breaks him down. The principal lesson here taught is prob-

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ably on this point, that this work of repentance must be a personal and individual work, and cannot be done by any one for another.

And now the work which Tom undertook is accomplished, and he is allowed to return to St. Brandan's Isle; but he is not required to retrace all the steps which he had taken during his long and arduous journey to the Other-end-of-no-where. He returns by the Back-stairs, and this gives the author the opportunity of having a fling, by no means unmerited or unnecessary, at those persons who think they can find a royal road or backstairs to any destination, without undergoing the labor prescribed for that purpose.

When Tom reached the island he found Ellie seated upon a rock; and we may remark that every detail in this interview merits attention, although we need not go minutely into the matter here. "Oh, Miss Ellie," said Tom, "how you are grown!" "Oh, Tom," said she, "how you are grown, too!" And no wonder; they were both quite grown up—he into a tall man, and she into a beautiful woman. At last they heard the Fairy say: "Attention, children. Are you never going to look at me again?" "We have been looking at you all this while," they said. And so they thought they had been. "Then look at me once more," said she. They looked, and both of them cried at once, "Oh, who are you, after all? You are our dear Mrs. Do-as-you-would-be-done-by. No, you are good Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did; but you are grown quite beautiful now!" "To you," said the Fairy, "but look again." "You are Mother Carey," said Tom, in a very low, solemn voice; for he had found out something which made him very happy, and yet frightened him more than all that he had ever seen. "But you are grown quite young again." "To you" said the Fairy. "Look again." "You are the Irish woman who met me the day I went to Harthover!" And when they looked she was neither of them, and yet all of them at once. "My name is written in my eyes, if you have eyes to see it there." And they looked into her great, deep, soft eyes, and they changed again and again into every hue, as the light changes in a diamond. "Now, read my name," said she at last. And her eyes flashed, for one moment, clear, white blazing light; but the children could not read her name; for they were dazzled, and hid their faces in their hands.

The meaning of the book is now clear, and the lesson which pervades it is brought out in two ways. On the one hand, we are reminded of the revelation of the Eternal Light, broken into the prismatic colors, for the eyes of the Fairy "changed again and again into every hue, as the light changes in a diamond," whilst behind all these changes "her eyes flashed, for one moment, clear, white, blazing light."

But still more strikingly is the unity amid diversity of the divine manifestation brought out in the different characters sustained by the same personage lying behind them all. Taking the interpretation of these characters, as they appear in the story, we are reminded that, in this dim twilight of time, when we are as children tossed to and fro, and carried about by every wind of doctrine, and see only as through a glass darkly, Nature and Grace, and Law, and Conscience and Providence seem to us diverse and often conflicting and contradictory; but when we are grown to the full stature of men, and see as we are seen, then shall we know that in these principles there is no contradiction, but that all are harmonious and one in God.

WILLIAM CLARK, D.C.L.

Ours is preëminently the day of the self-made man, of the great captain of industry who was once a poor man, whose career opens up to the workman indefinite possibilities. To such we owe something which weighs heavier in the destinies than gold, or cotton, or iron. We owe many a great character with fixed purpose, a steadfast and immovable human type which has transformed industrialism, and which has educated the nation more than all her schoolmasters. We may depend upon it that a great employer who has risen from the ranks by honest enterprise has great qualities, that his fortune is not luck, that he can "toil terribly," that his success involves moral elements. He is not to be mistaken for "the self-made man" of the lower type, whose influence, socially and morally, is not for good. The type we have in mind is he who has the diligence, capacity and moral power to rise from a humble origin to the post of leader of an industrial army and has the constant sense of coöperation with his fellows for a great purpose. This is the type that ennobles industry and elevates and advances the race.

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RECIPROCITY: IS IT ELUSIVE?

GEOGRAPHICAL trade theory gives a sort of romance to the notion of reciprocity, of which the distinguished statesman, James G. Blaine, the Henry Clay of his generation, was the formulator. His doctrine was founded on the natural distribution of products as affected by climate, zones, and hemispheres. Nothing could seem more self-evident, and even scientific, than that international commerce should rest upon the great basis of exchanging the products peculiar to one country for those indigenous to another. It was the earliest recorded form of commerce, as when the balm, honey, spices, myrrh, nuts, and almonds of Palestine were bartered for the corn of Egypt; the purple cloths of Tyre for the metals of Spanish Tarshish; and, even now, in the infancy of African trade, the muslins of Antwerp for the ivory and rubber of the Congo Valley.

The economic conception of reciprocity is a logical outcome of Adam Smith's great principle in "The Wealth of Nations," that trade is governed by natural laws, interference with which by the State is a blunder unfavorable to the increase of national wealth. To give scope to these laws, Great Britain adopted the policy of free trade, which may be defined as a recourse to the reciprocity of nature. Under such a system, reciprocity by treaties and statutes has small place. Statutory reciprocity in the United Kingdom lingers now only in its navigation laws, under which the crown may impose upon foreign vessels the same taxes and restrictions as are placed upon British vessels in the ports of the countries from which the former come. Legislative reciprocity belongs to those nations that have high tariffs and protective duties. They were common enough in former times, as between the Hanseatic cities of Germany. The Cobden treaty with Napoleon III. in 1860 is an example of what may still be done by Great Britain, for in it England gave concessions to French wines, on which a heavy duty was imposed, in consideration of remitted imposts on certain British manufactures. The United States had reciprocity with Canada from 1854 to 1866, but the treaty was terminated then because the former country did not consider the benefits of it equally advantageous to the contracting powers.

New interest attaches to this policy in the United States because of especial provisions incorporated in the McKinley tariff of 1890 and the Dingley tariff of 1897. These authorized the President to remit certain customs-duties, or parts of them, upon his obtaining assurances of equivalent concessions from another country in favor of America. Under the new tariff he may remit twenty per cent. of the duty on merchandise coming from another nation, when its Government stipulates to accord equal privileges to American exports. It will be seen that this policy is an accommodation of a protective system to free trade, and hence it is, to a certain extent, an admission that protection is an obstacle to commerce.

To this objection the answer is, that reciprocity follows along lines of the natural distribution of products, promoting an exchange of unlike commodities, opening sluices for the natural flow of trade; that free trade tends to arrest the development of a country's industry, while protection stimulates its capabilities, and reciprocity, as an incident of protection, restricts exchanges to those characteristic products which the two treaty nations, owing to diversities of climate, soil and situation, cannot put into competition. In a magnetic field there are constant oscillations moving on lines that tend to an equilibrium of forces. Let them alone and they are useless for the service of man. Rotate an armature between magnetic poles that direct the lines of force, and these natural waves may be controlled so as to perform such work as the art of man may prescribe. So statutory interposition can turn the natural laws of economy to the execution of such specific ends as the interests of a people may find conducive to their progress. Nature cannot be hurt by human art; for, indeed, it is that art which makes her subservient to man. There can be no art adverse to nature, for all efforts in that direction are futilities. Their inefficiency annuls them. Thus runs the protective argument.

In the commercial history of the United States no man has displayed a bolder or more penetrative genius than James G. Blaine. Thus far, our foreign commerce

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has run on lines of latitude, or, if one objects to the exactness of that expression, let us say on isothermal lines, where there is the greatest similarity of productiveness or capability. It is not so with the older nations of Europe, whose flags are carried to all the ports of the world. Very seldom are the stars and stripes afloat on the Suez Canal; still more rarely do they visit Singapore, the toll-gate of all far Eastern seas. We have no trade with Africa, hardly any with Australasia, little with China and Japan. Much of our exchange with Brazil, the Plata Valley, and the Levant passes through London. It was Mr. Blaine's splendid conception to build up an American commerce on lines of longitude.

Several considerations entered into this scheme. One was political, serving to convert a sentiment to practical account. Late in November, 1889, Dom Pedro II. left Brazil with his crown and sceptre, never to return. His country became a republic, and then there was not a rood of continental territory south of the Great Lakes, except the Guianas, that was monarchical. The whole was organized into republics following the constitutional precedents of the United States, and it was all the work of the nineteenth century.

The Monroe Doctrine pledged this country to protect these lands and their institutions from European interference. The two Americas had become politically homogeneous, having one ideal and one theory of government. Moreover, the people of Latin America, notwithstanding an occasional snarl from their politicians, possess sentiments of admiration for the the United States, and gratitude towards her for the unobtrusive conservation of their institutions accomplished by the Monroe Doctrine. They know that under the potent ægis of the great northern republic they were assured of freedom to work out their own development. Neither divergencies of race or faith have obscured the sense of political brotherhood.

The proof of these representations may be found in the Commercial Congress, held June, 1897, in Philadelphia, where sixteen Republican governments were represented. Every Latin American delegate warmly expressed the sentiments here attributed to these people. A representative from Argentina said that the careers of Clay, Webster, and Calhoun were well known to the studious men of his country, and that in its universities translations of the constitutional treatises of Story and Paschal were text-books. Now why should not the nations of this continent grow into one vast alliance, bound together less by treaties than by the bonds of kindred institutions and of commerce and industry? Such a federation would cover an area 4,500,000 square miles greater than the empire of Great Britain, the mightiest political organization known on earth, and a population larger than that of the Dreibund of Germany, Austria and Italy. It is said that Henry Clay once dreamed of this magnificent thing, but it is to Mr. Blaine's renown that he first contrived and set on foot the agencies for its realization.

Two more practical conceptions belonged to the reciprocity scheme of 1890; one immediate, the other prospective; the former looked to an exchange of unlike products, as the cheap wools and hides of Argentine pampas, the coffee of Brazil and Venezuela, the cocoa of Equador, the fibres of Mexico, the bananas of Costa Rica and Honduras, the sugars of Cuba for the manufactures of the United States. These are characteristic and unalterable productions of the several countries. Commerce in such commodities, once established, has every prospect of stability. It is not likely to be deflected or wiped out through changes of invention or policy. Here reciprocity, by putting the products of different zones in the same markets, contracts the great circles of the earth and obliterates latitude. Doubtless this commercial intercourse is bound to come in due time through the operation of natural causes, and without the interference of treaties and duties. Indeed, it already exists to some extent, and under curious conditions.

In 1896 the total foreign commerce of the United States with these Republics was nearly two hundred millions of dollars, of which 31 per cent. consisted of our exports, and 69 per cent. of merchandize imported from them. It is worth national consideration to determine how to send them as much as we receive from them.

The remaining element of the problem, the prospective one, is the development

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of a greatly increased traffic. Probably few of us are mindful of the comparative infancy of civilization in the Americas. When Spanish rule ceased in America in 1821, there was not a single State of the Union west of the Mississippi River. The entire population was only twice as great as is now concentrated in New England, and about three-fourths of that now credited to Mexico. In density we now have twenty-three persons to a square mile; Mexico has fourteen, and South America between five and six. To attain the density of Spain, one of the most sparsely settled kingdoms of Europe, it will be necessary to put 900,000,000 persons on American soil. Still further, the white races south of the Rio Grande comprise only about one-third of the present population.

The resources of the United States are but half developed. Half our farms, which altogether comprise but a fortieth of our land area, are still unimproved. It is this enormous room for the subjugation of nature — the ceaseless and prodigious demand for capital to develop our untouched resources — that has kept the United States from making foreign investments. We do not go abroad for wealth because the chances to create it are so great at home. Let this be considered when we are told how small a tonnage we have afloat engaged in foreign trade, or how meagre our commerce is with Latin America, or how little we own abroad compared with European nations.

It is impossible to conceive the magnitude of the industries that will belong to the Western Hemisphere long before it is as populous as even Asiatic Turkey. What will South America become when the wild valleys of the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Parana become as settled as that of the Mississippi; or what the Mississippi when its banks are as populous as the Danube or the Elbe? It was the vision of this majestic promise that Mr. Blaine saw, and he knew the value of prompt work to realize it. "As the twig is bent the tree is inclined," and those who prune first garner the choicest fruit.

Two projects were urged by Mr. Blaine to further his stupendous plans of American solidarity; one was his Pan American Congress, which was in session in Washington when Brazil changed from an empire to a republic; and the other was the incorporation into the McKinley tariff of 1890, of provisions empowering the President to enter into commercial treaties for the remission of duties, in consideration of reciprocal concessions from other contracting powers. It has always been understood that this reciprocity section was put into that bill out of deference to Mr. Blaine's wishes, if he did not draft it with his own hand; and that it embodied the conclusions he reached from the closely preceding Pan American Congress.

This Congress met in pursuance of an Act of Congress, approved in May, 1888, and was in session from November, 1889, till the following April. It was composed of delegates appointed by the Governments of every independent American state south of the St. Lawrence, and was distinctly official, although the powers of the Congress were restricted to reports and recommendations concerning international exchange. Its formulated conclusions were in favor of a uniform commercial coinage, a uniform system of weights and measures, comity in respecting legal proceedings and documents, subsidies for steamship lines, a connection of the railway systems of the respective countries, uniformity of patent and copyright laws, and treaties of extradition and reciprocity. It also established at Washington a Bureau of American Republics, maintained by contributions from each participating Government proportional to the population of each nation. That Bureau still exists and its functions are the publication of a monthly bulletin, the collection and distribution of information concerning American Republics, their resources, their commercial regulations, and their changes of legislation, as well as answering inquiries.

Under the authorization of the law of 1890, President Harrison entered into negotiations for reciprocity with a number of foreign Governments, some of which were consummated by treaties, as with Spain concerning the Cuban trade, and Brazil. The postal law was also amended, so that the Government might contract with any person or company building steamships in this country to sail under the American flag, to carry the mail at large rates per mile sailed, the number of voyages a year being prescribed. It was by such legislation that in 1892, the

Glasgow built ships, *Paris* and *New York*, were transferred to the American flag, and the *St. Louis* and *St. Paul* were built on the Delaware for the American line, sailing from New York to Southampton.

Beyond the acquisition of the American line, the history of the new reciprocity was very evanescent. However, great ideas are fruitful. It would be as astonishing to see the crop grown from the Blaine reciprocity sowing, as to see the farmers getting back fifty bushels of wheat from the scattering of the seeds of three, were we not so familiar with the prodigal providence of nature in all lines of genuine effort. The great political reaction of 1892, temporarily submerged the quite novel programme of Mr. Blaine. Seldom has a political campaign turned so largely upon economic questions, as when Mr. Cleveland beat Gen. Harrison in the presidential race, unless that of 1896 might be reckoned more so. All reciprocity agreements and most steamship subsidies went down in the revulsion, and linger now only as ammunition for political speeches. None of them had enough longevity to furnish data for analytical treatment by economic historians.

Prodigal returns from seed sowing are shown in the multiplicity of organizations that have sprung up for the promotion of inter-American trade in the last six years. Scores of schemes have shot up as saplings from these truncated plants of Blaine's. Last July, Dr. W. P. Wilson enumerated a baker's dozen of organizations, pushed from the soil into the atmosphere of International American commerce by the Blaine policy. Besides the Bureau of American Republics already named, foremost among these organizations are the Philadelphia Commercial Museums, and the American Manufacturers' Association, both of which sprang into existence with like purposes in view, under the stimulation of the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893, in Chicago. The Museums are a municipal department, maintained by the city and fostered by the State. They exist, not for profit, but for the dissemination of information, and it was due to them that the Congress of delegates from all American Republics met last June in Philadelphia. They have correspondence with every part of America, and have organized Advisory Boards, one composed of commercial delegates from sixteen nations, and the other "made up of the diplomatic representatives of other countries accredited to the United States."

At the Congress mentioned, the practicability of reciprocity was the theme most persistently and exhaustively discussed, and certain difficulties came to the front as the chief obstacles to international commerce between the United States and Latin America. Of these, the fiscal policy of the governments and the financial habits of the people were the greatest. Outside of the five Central American Republics, Belize and the Guianas, the governments of Latin America are, like our own, a federation of states retaining a very considerable degree of independence. They have closely followed our own constitutional system of deriving their support from customs-duties. This might seem to facilitate reciprocity, because on each side there are tariff taxes to be rebated. But there are two objections to this. In the southern republics the governments are in sore need of revenue, because they are in debt and their currency systems are not sound. They must pay their foreign obligations in gold, and exchange is heavily against them because their money of circulation is silver or excessive issues of paper. Said a Venezuelan: "If my country were to concede one of its custom-rates, she would be obliged to replace that tax with another, and, I confess, I do not see where it could be placed," or words to that effect.

The other objection is the so-called "favored nation clause" incorporated into so many commercial treaties. Let us quote the usual phraseology of such a clause from a treaty entered into by the United States and Japan in 1854.

"It is agreed that if, at any future time, the Government of Japan shall grant to any other nation or nations privileges and advantages which are not herein granted to the United States and citizens thereof, these same privileges and advantages shall be granted likewise to the United States."

There are but few American countries that have not entered into such an engagement with one or more foreign countries. So far, then, as the latter are concerned, they could demand that the same concessions which should be made in a reciprocity treaty between the United

States and a Latin American country, should be accorded to them. This might overturn a nation's fiscal policy and diminish its revenues. As such treaties are based upon mutual equivalent concessions, the favored nation clause might be of small effect, but it would give rise to entangling claims affecting the convenience or credit of the country against which they should be made.

More curious are the financial habits of Latin America. A bank, in our sense of it, is rare among its people; that is, a bank for mercantile purposes, where small deposits are made to be loaned out in the industrial community. Their banks are quite gigantic and few. They are agents of their governments, depositories of their revenues, negotiators of their loans, and issuers of the notes of the country. It is said that the people keep their money largely in their own hands, that mercantile notes are seldom discounted, that long credits, even from six months to a year, are asked. When a purchaser gives his note for merchandise the creditor puts it in his safe and awaits for it to become due. If the debtor is not then ready to pay, he calls in and says he will take it up in a few weeks. He does not renew it, and protests of overdue notes are considered discourteous, if not insulting. One reason for this is that legal bankruptcy in Latin America is a crime and not a misfortune. Proceedings are taken against the delinquent debtor's person and not against his estate. The people are reputed to be punctiliously honorable, and failures are rare. Great Britain and France adapt themselves to this condition by retaining a purchaser's note, receiving a heavy interest on current accounts, but Americans are not accustomed to this. Nor is this all. In our search for business there has, as yet, grown up no need to accommodate ourselves to what at least is so inconvenient. Our capital is more rapidly and profitably turned at home, where the demand for it is still enormous.

Although there are sixty-one lines of steamships advertised to leave New York for ports in the West Indies, Guiana and Latin America, international trade in this direction is said to be hampered by lack of adequate communication. The service is too concentrated, is infrequent and inadequate, and competition is not yet great enough to make freights economical. It is proposed that resort should again be had to heavy postal subsidies of American lines, the present service being largely in the hands of foreigners. The vessels will come, however, as fast as real occasion arises, and neither sentiment nor artifice will much hasten or retard their coming.

Other impediments to inter-American trade are the ignorance in Latin America of the manufactures and products of the United States, and, in the latter, of the language and tastes of our southern neighbors. They are sluggish and conservative, distrustful of novelties, tenacious of familiar styles and ways, as indeed are all races not so mixed and versatile as we are. Even with ourselves a familiar label, wrapping, or style, goes far to effect our purchases. There is commercial value in acquired prestige. If greater effort were made by our traders to accommodate themselves to the fashions and tastes of Latin America, that alone would do much to expand our commerce southward.

A final reflection is that the Americas are very new, their resources but little developed, their area sparsely occupied. All this will change. With increasing industrial progress and order, there must come increasing trade, and legislation will, as it always has, accommodate itself to growing commerce. Already we have, perhaps, our fair share of trade with Latin America. The entire exports and imports in the year ending July 1, 1896, of the Guianas and all the Latin American Republics amounted to about $830,000,000. The share of it that the United States had was one-fifth, or nearly the same as that of France. Great Britain, with all her splendid facilities, had only about 27 per cent. The international trade of the countries south of the Rio Grande is steadily increasing, and so is the relative share in it of the United States. Both are destined to grow to great proportions. Now that the commercial ambition and the patriotic instinct of this country have turned their attention thitherward with a zeal unprecedented in its history, with faster pace will come the day when the United States will become among nations the best customer, the best vendor, as they have ever been the best friend, to Latin America.

D. O. KELLOGG.

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LORD TENNYSON: A SON'S BIOGRAPHY.*

FILIAL devotion, with its hallowing reverences and ideals, is a beautiful trait to which we may all pay homage, but it is not invariably to be trusted when it assumes the task of perpetuating in letters a father's memory. The biography of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, which his son has just given to the world as an authoritative record of a long and illustrious though recluse career, is a noble exception to the style of memoir which we are accustomed to see written by filial piety. The life Hallam Tennyson describes was not lived in the public eye, and was utterly without sensational elements or any of the vapid interests which usually attach to a man whose name is, in a special sense, public property, and about whom the world was eagerly, and often officiously, curious. The life the poet lived, in a popular sense, lacked all that usually attracts the masses, for he was personally little known to his generation, rarely seen among large gatherings of the people, and, great Englishman as he was, was almost a stranger, in his later years at least, in the metropolis or in any of the chief cities of the United Kingdom. And yet, in another and a higher sense, the century has hardly known among its many intellectual forces one that has been more influential in its effect upon literary art, or in certain directions has more potently influenced the ideals and more profoundly given expression to the ethical and philosophic thought of the time. And yet, secluded as his life was, it was not one of obscurity or of mere asceticism; on the contrary, it was rich in all the elements that make for a great reputation, and ever devoted to strenuous, elevating purpose, and to an ideal poetic career.

So far as his tastes and opportunity offered, Tennyson's life was enriched by many wise and noble friendships, and by intimacy with not a few of the best and most thoughtful minds of his time. It was spent in unceasing toil in and for his high art, with a resulting productiveness which proved the extent and varied range of his labors as well as the mastery of his craft.

Hitherto we have known the late Laureate mostly through his books. Now, thanks to the biography before us, we know him as he lived, and feel that behind his writings there is a personality of the most interesting and impressive kind. It is a personality such as consorts with the opinions which most thoughtful readers of his writings must have had of one of the greatest and serenest minds of the age — a poet who, aside from the splendor of his workmanship and the beauty and melody of his verse, has greatly enriched the poetic literature of the century, and has, we feel, given profound thought to the intellectual problems and social maladies of the time. Nor does the Memoir, as a revelation of the poet's intellectual and personal life, fall away, on any page of it, from the high plane on which it has been prepared and written. There is no undue invasion, which a son's pride might be apt to make, of domestic privacy, and no dealing with irrelevant topics or elaboration of those set forth, with becoming modesty and restraint; far less is there the discussion of any subject for a trivial or vain purpose. Throughout the work we meet with no unnecessary lifting of veils or treatment of themes merely to satisfy morbid curiosity.

Everywhere there is the evidence of sound judgment, unimpeachable taste, and a wholesome sanity. This is especially the case in the frank revelation of the poet's views on religion and in his attitude towards scientific and theological thought. Nor is there any extravagant or unbecoming eulogium, such as one dear to the poet and who knew him intimately and well, might be tempted to pen. What there is of an estimate of the great man's life and work occurs fittingly, though quite incidentally, in the impressions and reminiscences of intimate friends, such as Gladstone, the Duke of Argyll, Lord Selborne, Jowett, Tyndall, Palgrave, Froude and others, whom the present Lord Tennyson had asked to contribute to the volumes — an addition to the work which will be found of deep interest to the reader. The biographer's conception of his own

* "Alfred, Lord Tennyson: A Memoir by his Son;" with photogravure portraits, facsimiles of portions of poems, illustrations after pictures by many artists, and selections from correspondence. 2 vols. 8vo (price $10.00). London and New York: The Macmillan Company.

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work and his relation to the life-history which he undertook to write, is admirably set forth in the following modest words taken from the preface: —

"For my own part," says the author, "I feel strongly that no biographer could so truly give him as he gives himself in his own works; but this may be, because, having lived my life with him, I see him in every word which he has written; and it is difficult for me so far to detach myself from the home circle as to portray him for others. There is also the impossibility of fathoming a great man's mind; his deeper thoughts are hardly ever revealed. He himself disliked the notion of a long, formal biography, for

None can truly write his single day,
And none can write it for him upon earth.

However, he wished that, if I deemed it better, the incidents of his life should be given as shortly as might be without comment, but that my notes should be final and full enough to preclude the chance of further and unauthentic biographies."

It is these wise words, and the spirit in which the younger Tennyson has written, coupled with the writer's own culture and his full knowledge of all the facts in the poet's career and of everything he wrote, that makes the present definitive biography of the Laureate so acceptable. It is this skilled and dignified treatment, with the vast literary and deep personal interest in the life, that will commend the work to all who were proud of the Laureate's fame, and who wished to have nothing written that was unworthy of either the poet or the man, or that would in the least detract from his laurels. Nor does the restraint which the biographer imposes upon himself conceal from us the man in his human aspects, or lead him to set before the reader an imaginary, rather than a veritable and real, portraiture. We have a picture, it is true, of an almost ideal domestic life, and of a man of rare gifts and fine culture, whose work and career have been and are the pride and glory of the English-speaking race. But we have also the story of an author not free from human weaknesses, and though endowed with manifold and great gifts yet who had to labor long and earnestly to perfect himself in his art, and in his early years had much discouragement and not a little adversity to contend with. With all the toil and stress his early years had known, when success came to the poet, no one was less unspoiled by it; and when sunshine fell upon and gilded his life, maturing years brought him serenity, happiness, and, at length, peace.

Not the least interest in the Memoir is the light the biographer throws on the poet's writings, — how they were conceived and elaborated, — and on the hidden meaning that underlies some of his more thoughtful verse. This, to students of the Laureate's writings, will be of high value, in addition to the service rendered by the biographer in tracing in his father's poetic work the influences which fashioned it and the pains he took to give it its marvellous beauty and artistic finish of expression. A further debt is due to the biographer for setting so clearly before the reader, not only the high ethical purpose which Tennyson had in selecting the themes of his poems and in the mode of handling them, but in showing us what, beyond peradventure, were his religious opinions, and, despite a certain curtaining of gloom, how profoundly he was influenced by faith in the Divine life.

Though caring little for dogma, Tennyson hated unfaith, and could not endure, as he expressed it, "that men should sacrifice everything at the cold altar of what, with their imperfect knowledge, they choose to call truth and reason." "My passionate desire," he exclaims, "is to have a clearer and fuller vision of God," and everywhere throughout the universe he saw the Divine glory and greatness. "The science of Nature," writes his son, "was particularly dear to him, and every new fact which came within his range was carefully weighed." Belief in Immortality and trust in the "larger hope" were comforting things to him, and in some of his writings this confidence inspired his imagination, as it possessed and was the mainstay of his life.

"I can hardly understand," the poet once affirmed, "how any great, imaginative man, who has deeply lived, suffered, thought and wrought, can doubt of the soul's continuous progress in after-life;" and of the weal of the race in that after-life he seemed to be assured, for he refused to place any limit to the compas-

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sion of Heaven or any bounds to Infinite mercy. That he lived under the power of the Unseen and buoyed his hope on a Saviour and a Personal God, is manifest in the beautiful lines on "Crossing the Bar," which he wrote in his eighty-first year, and in the explanation he gave to his son of "the Pilot he hoped to see face to face" as "that Divine and Unseen who is always guiding us."

Another very interesting feature of the family Memoir of the poet is the contributed matter by Tennyson's literary friends. Of these reminiscences many passages have a bibliographical as well as a biographical interest, as they recall opinions more or less current on the first appearing of the Laureate's more important poems. As an example of this enriching matter, appended to the Memoir, we cite the impression produced on Prof. Henry Sidgwick, the well-known writer on Ethics, and Cambridge professor of Moral Philosophy, by the publication in 1850 of "In Memoriam." The citation is helpful in indicating the influence of the poem on thoughtful minds harassed by doubts and beset by problems which faith alone can aid one to solve. Says Prof. Sidgwick:—

"The most important influence of 'In Memoriam' on my thought, apart from its poetic charm as an expression of personal emotion, opened in a region, if I may so say, deeper down than the difference between Theism and Christianity: it lay in the unparalleled combination of intensity of feeling with comprehensiveness of view and balance of judgment, shown in presenting the deepest needs and perplexities of humanity. And this influence, I find, has increased rather than diminished as years have gone on, and as the great issues between Agnostic Science and Faith have become continually more prominent. In the sixties I should say that these deeper issues were somewhat obscured by the discussions on Christian dogma and the Inspiration of Scripture. . . . During these years we were absorbed in struggling for freedom of thought in the trammels of an historical religion; and perhaps what we sympathized with most in 'In Memoriam' at this time, apart from the personal feeling, was the defence of 'honest doubt,' the reconciliation of knowledge and faith in the introductory poem, and the hopeful trumpetring of the lines on the New Year. . . . Well, the years pass, the struggle with what Carlyle used to call 'Hebrew old clothes' is over, Freedom is won, and what does Freedom bring us to? It brings us face to face with atheistic science; the faith in God and Immortality, which we had been struggling to clear from superstition, suddenly seems to be in the air; and in seeking for a firm basis for this faith we find ourselves in the midst of the 'fight with death' which 'In Memoriam' so powerfully presents."

Of "Maud," published in 1855, Gladstone writes to say:

"Whether the poem has the full moral equilibrium which is so marked a characteristic of the sister works, are questions open, perhaps, to discussion. But I have neither done justice to its rich and copious beauties, nor to its great lyrical and metrical power. And, what is worse, I have failed to comprehend rightly the relation between particular passages in the poem and its general scope."

Professor Jowett (late Master of Balliol College) says also of "Maud:"

"No poem since Shakespeare seems to show equal power of the same kind, or equal knowledge of human nature. No modern poem contains more lines that ring in the ears of men. I do not know any verse of Shakespeare in which the ecstasy of love soars to such a height."

Of the poetical rendering of the Arthurian Legends given us in "The Idylls of the King," there is qualified praise, some critic friends, such as Edward Fitzgerald, the translator of "Omar Khayyam," taking exception to the "cloudy Stonehenge grandeur" of the myths and to the remoteness of interest in the subject, though admitting "how pure, noble and holy" is the poet's work. Whatever difficulty we may have in adequately appreciating these fine legendary poems, is somewhat modified by accepting them, as the poet designed they should be accepted, as allegories; and yet he perplexes us by saying that "there is no single fact or incident in the 'Idylls,' however seemingly mystical, which cannot be explained as without any mystery or allegory whatever." If the "Idylls" are not allegorical pictures, then they seem mystical and unreal, spectacular and shadowy, however great and delicate their beauty. Mythical and mystical, nevertheless, there are few readers who have failed to admire this great modern mirror of chivalry, in which the poet has so magnificently set forth "scenes and figures that illustrate heroic virtues and human frailties, knightly gallantry, and chivalric enterprise," together with instances of "domestic perfidy, chaste virginal loves, and subtle, amorous enchantments."

In the biography there occur many critical observations on the poet's exquisite songs and minor lyrics, furnished by literary friends and alluded to in the abundant correspondence. Nor do the dramas fail to find admirers, though only one or two of them met with success on the stage, despite the many fine passages

in them that appeal to the English national mind. "Queen Mary" and "Becket," especially, are highly commended by Browning, Froude, Gladstone, and Sir Henry Irving. The latter says of "Becket" that "it is one of the three most successful plays produced by him at the London Lyceum."

Very interesting are the accounts given in the Memoir of Tennyson's friendships and the poet's interest in the literary men of his time, with his apt and suggestive criticisms on their works. Many names of high literary eminence occur throughout the volumes, including Wordsworth, Carlyle, Macaulay, Browning, George Eliot, Thackeray, Dickens, Hallam the historian, Aubrey de Vere the Irish poet, Monckton Milnes (Lord Houghton), Cardinal Newman, Ruskin, James Martineau, F. T. Palgrave, Huxley, and Tyndall. Among the poet's American correspondents we find Longfellow, Holmes, Bayard Taylor; and among the younger English poets the names of William Watson and Rudyard Kipling appear. Of no small literary interest is what is told us of the surrender of Carlyle, who had little patience with poetry, to the seductions of the volume of collected poems Tennyson issued in 1842. Here is Carlyle's racy expression of his approval of the volume written to the poet:—

"If you knew what my relation has been to the thing called English 'poetry' for many years back, you would think such a fact as almost surprising. Truly it is long since, in any English book, poetry or prose, I have felt the pulse of a real man's heart as I do in this same. A right valiant, true fighting, victorious heart; strong as a lion's, yet gentle, loving, and full of music; what I call a genuine singer's heart. There are tones as of the nightingale; low murmurs as of wood doves at summer noon; everywhere the noble sound as of free winds and leafy woods. The sunniest glow of Life dwells in that soul, chequered duly with dark streaks from night and Hades; everywhere one feels as if all were filled with yellow glowing sunlight, some glorious golden vapor, from which form after form bodies itself; natural *golden* forms. In one word, there seems to me a note of the 'Eternal Melodies' in this man; for which let all other men be thankful and joyful."

To the fact that the Chelsea seer was captured by the poet's work, Tennyson probably owed the dole of £200, given him by Sir Robert Peel from the Civil List, since the story goes that the pension was granted at the solicitation of Carlyle, through Lord Houghton, to whom the philosopher wrote, in forcible terms, telling him that he would "be damned" in the future life if he didn't see that Tennyson shared in the royal bounty. Later in his career even royalty itself succumbed to the mellifluous strains of the poet's verse, since, with the Laureateship, he gained the personal friendships of Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort, and thrice a baronetcy was thrust upon him. After the publication of "In Memoriam" and the death of the Prince Consort, Her Majesty was very gracious to the poet, and seems to have held him, though but a subject, in the highest esteem. So marked was the intimacy, that the Queen even unbends so far as to allude to politics in her correspondence with the poet, and, when he passed away, she forwarded the following touching letter of condolence to his son:—

"The Queen deeply laments and mourns her noble Poet Laureate, who will be universally regretted, but he has left undying works behind him which we shall ever treasure. *That great spirit now knows what he has so often reflected and pondered over.*"

With all Tennyson's power of metrical expression, only Shakespeare, and perhaps Wordsworth, have surpassed him in the writing of blank verse. Of the Laureate's art in this respect the Memoir here and there speaks in deservedly high terms. The distinguished Greek scholar, Prof. Jebb of Cambridge, affirms that no English poet has used blank verse as Tennyson has used it,

"with such flexible variety, or drawn from it so large a compass of tones, nor has any maintained it so equally on a high level of excellence. He (the Laureate) has known how to modulate it to every theme, and to elicit a music appropriate to each; attuning it in turn to a tender and homely grace, as in 'The Gardener's Daughter;' to severe and ideal majesty of the antique, as in 'Tithonus;' to meditative thought, as in 'The Ancient Sage' or 'Akbar's Dream;' to pathetic or tragic tales of contemporary life, as in 'Aylmer's Field,' or 'Enoch Arden;' or to sustained romantic narrative, as in 'The Idylls.'"

True as this is, it comes far short of what might be said of the poet, as the supreme lyrist and singer, as well as the most representative voice, of the age. What his influence has been on contemporary thought, there is little need to show. If proof were needed, ample attestation is furnished in the estimates of the poet's friends in the Memoir, only one of which, contained in a letter of

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Froude's, we have space to quote. Says the historian, writing to the biographer:—

"I owe to your father the first serious reflections upon life and the nature of it which have followed me for more than fifty years. The same voice speaks to me now as I come near my own end, from beyond the bar. Of the early poems, 'Love and Death' had the deepest effect upon me. The same thought is in the last lines of the last poems which we shall ever have from him.

"Your father in my estimate stands and will stand far away by the side of Shakespeare above all other English poets, with this relative superiority even to Shakespeare, that he speaks the thoughts and speaks *to* the perplexities and misgivings of his own age.

"He was born at the fit time, before the world had grown inflated with the vanity of progress, and there was still an atmosphere in which such a soul could grow. There will be no such others for many a long age."

No less hearty testimony appears in the work touching the poet as a man. The son speaks in noble terms of "the high purport" of his father's life and work, his humility, and his open-hearted and helpful sympathy; while Lecky, the historian, lovingly commends "his singular modesty, child-like simplicity and frankness," though he expresses surprise at his well-known extreme sensitiveness to criticism. Very beautiful were the domestic relations of the poet, and extremely touching is the expression of his debt to his wife. "The peace of God," says Tennyson, "came into my life before the altar when I wedded her." Here is the son's reference to Lady Tennyson, his mother:—

"I cannot allow myself full utterance about her whom I loved as perfect mother and 'very woman of very woman'—such a wife and true helpmate she proved herself. It was she who became my father's adviser in literary matters; 'I am proud of her intellect,' he wrote. With her he always discussed what he was working at; she transcribed his poems; to her and to no one else he referred for a final criticism before publishing. She, with her 'tender, spiritual nature,' and instinctive nobility of thought, was always by his side, a ready, cheerful, courageous, wise, and sympathetic counsellor. It was she who shielded his sensitive spirit from the annoyances and trials of life, answering (for example) the innumerable letters addressed to him from all parts of the world. By her quiet sense of humor, by her selfless devotion, by 'her faith as clear as the heights of the June-blue heaven,' she helped him also to the utmost in the hours of his depression and of his sorrow."

Here, as elsewhere in the Memoir, we have evidence of the admirable taste, as well as thorough competence, of the poet's son to undertake the delicate task which he has now so happily and satisfactorily completed. The biography, in all respects, is worthy of its high theme; and it has been fortunate, no less for literature than for the Laureate's memory, that the poet has had, in his only surviving son, so reverent as well as competent and discriminating an interpreter. The history of English letters has hardly had a finer or worthier contribution to its annals.

G. MERCER ADAM.

TRUSTS AND THE MOVEMENT AGAINST THEM

THE trust problem is, by common consent, one of the leading issues of present-day politics. In presidential messages, in party platforms, in the public press, the subject is gravely and anxiously treated as something requiring the immediate attention of the statesman, the legislator and the judge. The record of no session of any State Legislature is complete without the addition of some anti-trust enactments to the large volume of existing legislation aimed at these powerful combinations. Under these State laws, as well as under the notorious Federal law—known as the Sherman law—against trusts, actions have been instituted in the courts against associations charged with restraining trade and stifling legitimate competition. From the sensational decision in the great Trans-Missouri railroad pool case down to obscure, local legal controversies, the courts have uniformly and strongly ruled against trusts and combinations attempting to regulate production, control prices, and interfere with the natural play of supply and demand. In other words, there is an unbroken series of judicial decisions emphatically adverse to what public opinion vaguely designates as "trusts." Outlawed, frowned upon by courts, opposed by the general public, the trusts would seem to have little chance of survival and success; yet the fact is that they defy legislation and clamor, evade restrictions, and surmount all obstruction. To what do they owe

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this vitality? Whence their strength? And how is the pending contest likely to end?

In all fairness it must be admitted that there are unmistakable signs of a change in the attitude of many public men and organs toward the trust principle. A few years ago the trust had neither defender nor apologist. The business circles were as hostile to them as the politicians and legislators. The demand for repressive legislation was universal. To-day even he who watches the drift of things with half an eye cannot fail to discern a notable change. The trusts have bold and outspoken champions. Great newspapers and men of affairs are beginning to ridicule anti-trust efforts, if not to denounce as mischievous, "populistic," and demagogical all legislative measures and public agitation against gigantic trade combinations. We are told that war on the trust is war upon corporate capital, upon concentration and consolidation, upon the economic tendencies of the age. We are told that trusts are beneficent and inevitable, that they are a logical development of industry on a great scale and can no more be checked by law than can the supersession of hand labor by machinery and small agencies by powerful ones.

However, these voices, while undoubtedly significant as indicators of new tendencies, are as yet voices crying in the wilderness. Public and legislative and judicial sentiment is still aggressively opposed to trusts. The remarkable decision of the Federal Supreme Court in the railroad pool case, while severely criticized in some quarters, was hailed with delight by the people at large, while in Congress the attempt to push bills legalizing railway pools met with stout resistance.

A brief historical survey will enable us to understand the case against trusts. In spite of the superabundance of talk, but few are able to give a precise definition or description of a trust, and not many are conversant with the *modus operandi* of these combinations, stigmatized by every court of the land as illegal and pernicious and oppressive.

We have to observe in the first place that "trust" is a highly technical term employed intelligently only by those who are familiar with corporation law and financiering. Many of the combinations loosely called trusts are technically not trusts at all, in the original and correct sense of the term. They have certain features of the trust and are therefore objectionable, but the legal case against them rests on entirely different considerations from those properly invoked against genuine trusts.

It is generally believed, in high corporation circles, that the "trust" principle was invented by Mr. S. C. Dodd, an attorney of the Standard Oil Company. The first example of the commercial trust was the Standard Oil trust, formed under Mr. Dodd's guidance. To control the market and regulate prices, most of the producers of mineral oil in the eastern states entered into a combination founded on a (then) new and peculiar arrangement. Individual oil producers conveyed their property to certain trustees, and the stockholders of corporations engaged in oil production conveyed their stock to the same trustees. The entire business thus consolidated was thereupon assumed by these trustees, who were to carry it on free from control or interference. In return for the property conveyed by the original owners and stockholders, each received from the trustees a certificate attesting his commercial interest in the transformed and consolidated concern. The profits realized by the trustees were divided among these certificate holders. The essential principle was the separation of the dividend-earning power from the controlling power. The trustees became the active and sole managers, while the original owners became passive dividend-earners. Every original trust had this form of organization, and its advantages are apparent. It is clear now why the name "trust" was given to this kind of combination: the trust principle was applied to the consolidation of small and independent concerns into one gigantic organization. The object, of course, was to do away with competition, regulate the output, determine prices and secure higher profits. This form, however,—the technical commercial trust,—was promptly declared illegal, pernicious and dangerous by the courts. Why? Not because any special legislation existed against it. It was under the general principles of the common law and the body of corporation law that the trust was unqualifiedly condemned, and to grasp the doctrine of the courts as laid down in the leading cases in the early days of the trust is a liberal education.

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The trust possessed the elements of a partnership. The trustees, not the certificate holders, were the partners. It is they who were liable to all having dealings with the concern. The question, therefore, which the courts had to put and answer at the outset was as to the right of the individual producers and component corporations to form the partnership in point. If this right existed, the trust was legal. But the answer of the courts was a negative one. The most vigorous, clearest and ablest discussion of the subject is found in the model opinion of Judge Finch, embodying the decision of the New York Court of Appeals in the leading case of the North River Sugar Refining Company. That decision, in fact, sounded the knell of the trust in its first form and necessitated a new method of organization. The logical reasoning of Judge Finch may be condensed as follows: —

Corporations are the creatures of the State. In creating them and conferring corporate powers the legislature is supposed to have the general public benefit in view. That is, corporations are expected to serve and accommodate the public. They have no natural rights and are not protected by the natural laws recognized by the constitutions of popular governments. They derive their powers from their charters or from the general law which regulates their formation. The legislature imposes certain conditions and restrictions upon them, the violation of which involves the forfeiture of the charter, the death of the corporation. There is a contract between the legislature representing the State and the corporation, but the contract contains stipulations which the corporation must strictly observe, and the terms of the contract are to be interpreted strictly as against the corporation and liberally with reference to the public. Now, the legislature, mindful of the dangers to the people — overbalancing the benefits — flowing from aggregations of capital, keeps upon corporations a restraining hand. It sets limits to their activity, and maintains over them a prudent supervision. But the object of a trust is to escape from this legislative control, to free corporations enjoying special privileges from the restrictions attached to these privileges. The trust seeks to divest corporations of the vital elements of their franchises. The valuable gift of corporate life is accepted from the State only to disregard the conditions upon which it was given; the powers are received only to be put in pawn and given away to a board of irresponsible trustees. The component corporations lose their independence, and surrender it to a body never contemplated by the legislature. The law governing corporations specifically prohibits the formation of partnerships between them, and it would be a plain violation of the intent of the law to tolerate partnerships of distinct and independent corporations through the medium and guise of a trust. No substantial consolidation can be permitted which evades the statutory restraints. Corporations created by the legislature must remain several and independent. To suffer unauthorized and unintended consolidation is to defeat the very object of the legislature in creating corporations.

When this luminous decision was rendered, not a murmur of dissent was heard in any quarter. The acquiescence was general, unreserved. The justice of the decision was instantly recognized. It was perceived that to permit the formation of indirect partnerships — in face of the explicit prohibition of direct ones — would be to nullify the entire body of corporation law. The trust was repugnant to the fundamental principles of corporation ethics, and could not be sanctioned.

But most of the trusts, so called, which have been organized since the promulgation of the New York doctrine, have pursued different methods. The legal struggle against organizations in restraint of trade has entered upon a new phase. To-day two forms of organization are prevalent in the monopoly circles anxious to evade the restrictions upon corporate activity. One is exemplified by the case of the Harrow Company declared illegal some months ago by Judge Acheson, of the Federal district court of Pennsylvania. The method consists in the formation of a superior corporation of which the absorbed component corporations become "agents." Very few States permit the incorporation of such peculiar bodies, hence it is necessary to obtain incorporation in States like New Jersey, where the corporation laws are very "liberal" — that is, vague and lax.

In the Harrow case, a number of leading and independent manufacturers h

formed a corporation under the New Jersey laws. The component individuals and corporations had agreed to assign to the new corporation all the property and patent rights which they severally owned. They had bound themselves not to be interested in the manufacture or sale of harrows except as authorized agents or licensees of the new corporation. Each "agent" was to receive, in payment for his or its good will and property, a certain price in paid-up stock of the new corporation, and each was to receive a license to go on with the manufacture and sale of harrows subject to the conditions and regulations of the superior corporation. Clearly, the objection to the technical trust did not apply to this case. Here there was no attempt to evade the law against partnerships between corporations, for the New Jersey law of corporations distinctly authorized the formation of a corporation having other corporations as agents or licensees. The Harrow Company, popularly called a trust, claimed the right to do business in other American States as a "foreign corporation," entitled to protection and recognition under the principle of "comity." But Judge Acheson found it illegal and against public policy. He did not invoke corporation principles, but, on the other hand, he did not rely on any special local statutes against monopolies. He decided the case on high common-law grounds.

Judge Acheson held that the arrangement had all the earmarks of an attempt at monopoly and restraint of competition. In a lucid opinion, which elicited much praise among the fair-minded, he argued thus: The New Jersey corporation did not go into business itself; it undertook neither the manufacture nor the sale of harrows; it had no other *raison d'être* than that of dictating prices, terms and conditions to the several companies which it controlled. In other words, it was organized, not for the purpose of doing legitimate business, but of limiting competition among certain companies engaged in a certain line of business. It was, therefore, a conspiracy against the consumers, a blow at supply and demand.

The second mode of combination in restraint of competition known to-day, is that represented by the pool, especially by the railroad pool. Neither a trust nor a corporation is formed. A contract is merely entered into, whereby the parties concerned bind themselves to keep up a certain rate of prices or to refrain from excessive competition. The great Trans-Missouri railroad case exemplifies this arrangement. According to the Federal Supreme Court, even under the common law, a contract to limit competition is against public policy, regardless of the question as to the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the rates determined upon in the contract. The common law insists that the consumers shall have the benefit of normal competition, and arrangements to raise prices artificially are in the nature of conspiracies. However, the Trans-Missouri railroad case was really decided under the Sherman anti-trust law, the phraseology of which, in the opinion of the court, was wide enough to prohibit even reasonable contracts in restraint of trade.

In addition to these kinds or forms of so-called trusts there is the "gentlemen's agreement," which is merely oral and is therefore seldom resorted to. So far as the legality of the transaction is concerned, it clearly matters little whether the contract in restraint of trade is written or unwritten, but unwritten agreements cannot be proven in courts and are easily broken. Combinations seeking stability and permanence cannot rest on mere oral promises, and some formal and binding agreement is necessary.

Having stated the principles and *modus operandi* of the combinations called trusts, the question recurs what economic and moral objections are there to them. The apologists of these combinations boldly declare that the outcry against them is due to prejudice and short-sighted treatment of economic phenomena. They recall the fact that in the early days of industry on a large scale, there was intense prejudice against any form of combination. Even ordinary partnerships were at first regarded with suspicion and hostility. It was thought that the safety of society required that only individuals should be allowed to engage in production or distribution or exchange. Too much power, it was feared, might be acquired by partnerships. Later the corporate form of organization was fiercely attacked as a menace to society. To-day all competent men recognize that industry would be impossible without corporations, and there is no rational opposition to

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them. But, it is said, the development of trade, the multiplication of costly labor-saving machines and devices, and the intensified struggle for markets and customers, have made the ordinary corporation inefficient and ill-adapted to existing requirements. In the interest of economy, in the interest of the great body of consumers, "trusts" have become necessary; a further step must be taken in the direction of concentration and consolidation. The gigantic combination is to the ordinary corporation what in former days the latter was to the partnership. To quarrel with the tendency toward agreements to regulate production and sales, in order to prevent excessive, ruinous and wasteful competition, is to quarrel with industrial progress.

And what is the answer to this plea for "trusts?" Of course, it is easy to say that they are illegal and ought to be suppressed. The real question, however, is whether they ought to be made illegal — whether old and new anti-trust legislation is rational or short-sighted.

Perhaps the controlling economic and ethical consideration against trusts is that, while in some cases they may, indeed, result in benefits to the consumer, there is no way of guaranteeing and insuring such benefits. Trusts are not organized for philanthropic purposes, and the benefit to the consumer is incidental, if not unintended. A trust in any line of industry means a monopoly, and a monopoly generally means oppression and extortion. The fact that here and there a monopoly is moderate, and regardful of the popular interest, is no conclusive argument in favor of monopoly in general. Monopoly has, as a rule, abused its power and opportunity, and the public is entitled to be protected against this possible and probable abuse. In an individualistic, competitive system, legislation does not undertake to regulate prices and wages; supply and demand are supposed to take care of that. In other words, the preventive and remedy for monopoly is competition, actual or potential. The law does not interfere in the great majority of cases, but the certainty that unreasonable exaction will encourage and stimulate competition checks the monopolistic proclivities of many traders and business men. If we remove competition, what remains as a check upon such monopolistic aggressions? It is not proposed to resort to socialistic legislation; the huge combinations are to be trusted to respect the rights of consumers without any compulsion from without. Is this safe, wise, reasonable? Has not experience taught us that the average combination will raise prices to the highest level consumers will stand, and ignore every consideration save that of personal profit? The collapse of numerous trusts in recent years shows us that the management of such bodies is neither prudent nor considerate. Some trusts overreach themselves and fail, but others — less reckless — are able to maintain their supremacy at the expense of the consumers.

It is a favorite method of certain trust apologists to point to heavy reductions in the price of trust-controlled commodities and ask triumphantly whether the consumer does not get his fair share of the economy effected by the trust management. The answer is that the reductions are generally due to changes with which trusts have nothing to do, and that under free competition the benefit to the consumer would be still greater. Things are frequently credited to trusts which come about in spite of them.

But there is another argument against the unlimited freedom of trust manipulation. It has been emphasized in many judicial decisions, especially in the opinion of the supreme court in the Trans-Missouri case. The court therein admits that combinations may temporarily, or even permanantly, reduce prices by cutting down expenses and the cost of production, but it adds: "Trade or commerce, under those circumstances, may, nevertheless, be badly and unfortunately restrained by driving out of business the small dealers and worthy men whose lives have been spent therein, and who might be unable to readjust themselves to their altered surroundings. Mere reduction in the price of the commodity dealt in might be dearly paid for by the ruin of such a class and the absorption of control over one commodity by an all-powerful combination of capital." The court goes on to say that all industrial progress entails displacement of capital and labor and, consequently, some suffering to a minority, but it distinguishes between natural changes and artificial

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manipulations. It then proceeds as follows: —

"In this light it is not material that the price of an article may be lowered. It is in the power of the combination to raise it, and the result in any event is unfortunate for the country by depriving it of the services of a large number of small but independent dealers. . . . It is not for the real prosperity of a country that such changes should occur which result in transferring an independent business man, the head of his establishment, small though it might be, into a mere servant or agent of a corporation for selling the commodities which he once manufactured or dealt in, having no voice in shaping the business policy of the company and bound to obey orders issued by others. Nor is it for the substantial interests of the country that any one commodity should be within the sole power and subject to the sole will of one powerful combination of capital."

Here we have a strong statement of the second objection to trusts and pools. The intelligent man must consider the two sides and determine which is merely plausible and which cogent and convincing. But, at this point, an important question suggests itself, — namely, whether trades-unions and labor organizations are not condemned by the same arguments which are employed against combinations of capital. If, it may be (and is) said, capitalists and employers must compete, why not make the same demand of wage-workers? Why accord to them the right to combine and prevent competition for employment? What is the object of a labor union? Clearly to maintain or advance wages and reduce the hours of work. Were it not for unionism, wages would be lower and the commodities produced by wage-earners cheaper. Are not employers and consumers entitled to these benefits of unchecked competition among workmen? Is not every union a trust? If other trusts are outlawed why are labor trusts tolerated, if not actually commended and encouraged?

From the standpoint of principle and technical definition, it is difficult to see how it can be denied that labor unions are combinations in restraint of trade. But the moment we apply a practical test, — the "rule of reason," to use a term of the Supreme Court minority in the Trans-Missouri case, — we find that none of the real objections to trusts and pools can be successfully urged against labor organization. Labor, as a commodity, can never become so scarce as to render monopoly prices possible. The excess of the supply of labor over the demand in every branch of trade is notorious. All that unionism can do is to prevent wages from falling to a level incompatible with a decent standard of living, to keep up a fair and reasonable rate. Can it be maintained that society at large would be benefited by a starvation rate of wages? The prosperity of an industrial nation in these days depends on the efficiency and intelligence of its producers, and reasonable wages are a general blessing rather than a class privilege. No legislation is needed to preserve competition among workmen; it is too intense already. Since, then, there is no danger of monopoly in labor, there is no warrant for applying anti-trust laws to trades-unions.

A second important consideration is that workmen organize as individuals. They enjoy no special privileges; they obtain no gifts from the legislature; they are not incorporated and have none of the powers and immunities which corporations must have in order to exist at all. Organized labor asks for no greater freedom in combination than the members enjoy severally as individuals and citizens. They are not, consequently, in the same case with railroads, manufacturing corporations and other agencies of a semi-public character, created in the interest of the public. Only when trades-unions overstep the limits of equal liberty and rights may they be dealt with as conspiracies in restraint of trade and competition.

The test to be applied to all combinations is the welfare, not of a class or special interest, but of the great body of consumers. It is right and essential to protect them against monopoly, to secure to them the advantages flowing from healthy competition. If this is steadily kept in view, anti-monopoly legislation cannot go astray. V. S. YARROS.

Professor L. H. Bailey of Cornell, has just issued a work on "Garden-Making," designed as a guide to daily practice in the garden, whether that be a city backyard or an enclosure of acres.

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THE DEAN OF CANTERBURY ON HALL CAINE'S NEW NOVEL, "THE CHRISTIAN."*

WHEN fifty thousand copies of a new story have been sold in Britain, and probably as many more in the United States, in the course of a few weeks, and when it has been received by some with intense bitterness and fierce denunciation, while others have awarded to it the most glowing eulogies, all will be ready to admit that the book cannot be an ordinary one. Few will dispute that "The Christian" is not to be classed with those fictions—and their name is legion—which excite no more than a languid interest, and which we lay down without taking the trouble to read them to the end. Whatever be its merits or demerits, this novel is one which must force all serious men to think over the problems which the author intended to set before us.

It is a curious fact that whereas in the United States Mr. Hall Caine's novel has been welcomed with almost extravagant adulation, in England it has been angrily, and by some almost contumeliously, condemned. I think that the explanation of criticisms so widely opposed to each other is that in England—chiefly owing to accidental circumstances and to the erroneous impressions of some of its earlier reviewers—the book has been judged from points of view far different from those which the writer intended. In England it has been assumed that the hero of the book is meant for an *ideal* Christian, and even for the follower of Christ needed by the nineteenth century. The author has then been assailed for putting forth an utterly false exposition of the Christian life, and for holding up to our admiration a weak, hysterical, self-deceived fanatic, whose work ended in deplorable failure. Mr. Stead, in the "Review of Reviews," writing with characteristic straightforwardness, and not without much genuine appreciation, understands the author to have implied that the Christ of holiness had failed, and that such an unhappy being as John Storm is now necessary to work out the redemption of the world.

There does not seem to be any real ground for such a view unless it be in the perhaps unfortunately selected title of the novel, and in expressions which have, apparently without sufficient authority, been attributed to the author. But if for any such reasons the motive of the book has been misinterpreted, we may feel sincere sympathy with the writer amid the flood of vituperation to which he has been subjected. Let him not take it too much to heart. In ancient days, he will remember, even Homer had his Zoilus.* In modern days critics no less eminent than Voltaire thought it enough to say of the "Divina Commedia" that the Inferno was revolting, the Purgatorio dull and the Paradiso unreadable. A contemporary of Milton described the "Paradise Lost" as "a profane and lascivious poem." Keats was ordered by the "Edinburgh Review" "to go back to his gallipots." Byron characterized Wordsworth's *magnum opus* as

> "A drowsy, frowsy poem called 'The Excursion,'
> Writ in a manner which is my aversion,"

at the very time that Coleridge was describing it as

> "An Orphic song indeed,
> A song divine of high and passionate thoughts
> To their own music chanted."

Humbler mortals, if they have done their best, and if their motives have been high and pure, may listen with indifference to the abuse of critics and "the irresponsible chatter of hare-brained frivolity." Wordsworth wrote to a friend who had commiserated with him on the contemptuous ridicule to which he was subjected, that he need not be grieved on this account, since he

* The remarkable diversity of opinion among the critics, on both sides of the Atlantic, with respect to Mr. Hall Caine's new novel, "The Christian," seems to give special value to this estimate of the work by Dean Farrar, which appeared in the "Contemporary Review" for October last. The critique, while discriminating, is yet just and sympathetic, and as such will, it is believed, be valued by the many, among SELF CULTURE'S subscribers, who are or who may become readers of the much-belauded and at the same time much-contemned novel.—ED. S. C.

* A Greek rhetorician of the fourth century, B.C., who was designated, from his severe criticisms on the author of the "Iliad," the "Scourge of Homer."

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felt sure that in the long run his poems would be found to co-operate with all beneficent influences, and to make the happy happier. And Dante gave noble advice when he put into Virgil's mouth the words: —

> "Lascia dir le genti
> Sta come torre fermo, che non crolla
> Giammai la cima per soffiar di venti:"

which Carlyle translated into homelier English when he wrote, "Get the thing done and let them howl."

Leaving the title of the book out of sight for the moment, it is, on the face of it, a love story, in which a tragical complication is introduced by the passion inspired for one another by two natures radically opposed. Is it too much to conjecture, that in forming his conception of John Storm and Glory Quayle the writer was much influenced by the doctrine of heredity? The heroine is the grand-daughter of a French actress, and the daughter of a fanatical devotee. The hero is the son of a saintly mother and of a father devoted to worldly schemes. Almost every incident and scene in the story turns on the apparently hopeless relations between two natures so fundamentally dissimilar, yet powerfully drawn to each other by a mutual love.

In presenting the love story, the writer unquestionably meant at the same time to urge his own moral and religious convictions upon the consciences of his readers. But it would be as unfair to attribute *to him* the dramatically presented views of his various characters as it would be to quote as the sentiments of Shakespeare or Robert Browning the opinions which they merely put into the mouths of very dubious personages. For instance, the Prime Minister, who is John Storm's uncle, being an agnostic, and feeling genuine distress for the broken fortunes of a nephew to whom he is sincerely attached, comes to the very hasty conclusion that the relations between Church and State are unsatisfactory, and that the Church ought to be disestablished. That may or may not be the writer's own opinion; but from the merely dramatic and incidental presentation of the Prime Minister's views, we have no right to assert that it is. The Premier's conclusion is formed on very partial grounds, and is not brought forward as possessing much intrinsic weight.

This remark has a much wider application. All John Storm's opinions — many of which are crude and violent — have been represented as though they were the author's own. This is surely a mistake in the point of view. John Storm presents the type of an intellect intensely sincere, but very imperfectly enlightened. He is passionate in his methods, and far too impetuous in his sweeping judgments. He means well; but he often acts most unwisely. He tries to revolutionize the world by impossible methods, and he fails to master the impulses of his own heart. He is without wide knowledge, and wholly without the serene wisdom which can make allowance for men who are struggling amid trying conditions. His mind is so ill-balanced that he sinks into strange follies. He has none of the large insight which can penetrate to "the heart of goodness in things evil," and see a germ of life in the mouldered tree. John storm is a fanatic, and an unwise fanatic, who egregiously fails in his schemes, of which many are foredoomed to overthrow because they are injudicious and ill-considered. But although he exhibits no skill in adapting means to ends, he stands for "the Christian," in so far as he realizes, with only one fatal and overpowering exception, the Christ-like ideal of *self-renunciation*. He is a man with all the burning enthusiasm which filled the heart of Charles Kingsley in his youth, but with little of his robust manliness and sovereign sanity. He represents a type which has sprung up in the Church since the days of Frederick Denison Maurice.

Amid all their intellectual limitations and moral onesidedness, such men present, to an age in which the faith of many has dwindled to a shadow and the love of many has waxed cold, the saving virtue of self-sacrifice and absolute sincerity. John Storm is a man of pure heart and high mind, if of very moderate intellect and very shallow attainments; the book is the study of such a mind driven into despair, into hysteria, into absolute madness, by the vain attempt to win victory in the most awful of human struggles — the struggle to master an overpowering human affection. It is monstrous to attribute to the writer the design of presenting this distracted creature, torn asunder by two opposite impulses, as the

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new ideal of the Messiah needed by our century! On the contrary, he overwhelms John Storm with the most disastrous failure. He shows that this failure has arisen because the young clergyman's soul has been so tortured by lack of power to subdue the love for a woman that at last he mistakes a murderous impulse for a "divine mandate," and narrowly escapes being shut up for life as a homicidal maniac. But here I must correct the entirely unwarranted inference that, in the scene between John Storm and Glory Quayle, which is the climax of the book, it was meant to be inferred that the hero and the heroine fall at the supreme moment into mortal sin. This has been assumed in more than one review. Such a *dénoûment* would have been shocking, horrifying, thoroughly inartistic, and entirely needless. I can only say that when I read the book it never even crossed my mind that such a sin was hinted at; nor can I find anything to justify the assertion that Glory Quayle only marries John Storm upon his deathbed in order to save her future reputation. There is not a word to show that the writer had any such thought in his mind, and it is unfair to attribute it to him when he gives no justification for it. He ought not to be held responsible for the mistaken inferences of his reviewers; and in future editions he will, I hope, exclude the possibility of so complete a misreading of his intention.

I think, too, that it would be well if the writer removed the impression which his book leaves upon the minds of many, but which he can hardly have intended, that the aims, the methods, and the whole work of the Church of England are hopelessly ineffectual; that she is not even attempting to grapple with the awful problems around her; that so plethoric a worldling as Canon Wealthy is a type of all the clergy who are not like the hero; that the Church is honeycombed with worldliness; that there are no sincere and whole-hearted endeavors to effect real and striking amelioration except the spasmodic denunciations and crude schemes of a man like Storm. I am quite sure that the author had no such intention; but I think that he would have done well, were it even by the addition of a couple of sentences, to show that this in no way resembles his real opinion. If it did, no caricature of the conditions of the Church could be more gross. I am well acquainted with a large number of clergymen, and among them all I do not know even one who distantly resembles Canon Wealthy. He closely resembles the worldly archdeacon depicted by Anthony Trollope in "Barchester Towers;" but though there have been epochs in the Church when men of such a type have been numerous, they have left very few, if any, representatives in the present toiling and suffering days.

As regards faithful, continuous, self-denying labor, I know not only scores, but hundreds of clergymen who, in far-off country parishes, in bleak mountain-villages, in lonely seaside hamlets, in densely-crowded manufacturing centres, in black mining districts,—with no hope of reward, and on pittances less than the salary of a rich man's butler,— are hurling the whole force of their energy and enthusiasm against the force of prevalent temptations.

Day by day they are training the young; taking the little children by the hand; gathering the boys into brigades and bands; furnishing clubs and reading-rooms for the young men; providing simple services for the poor and ignorant in humble mission-rooms; holding meetings for the mothers; befriending the servants; sending the sick to convalescent homes; finding a foretaste of heaven amid the miseries of earth by making all around them a little better and a little more hopeful.

Some of the scenes of Mr. Hall Caine's book are laid in parts of Westminster, London, well known to me, and I can say from long personal experience, that the efforts of the clergy were devoted ten times more to the poorest of the poor than they were to the rich; that wherever there was poverty, and drink, and crime, there the clergy were most unremitting in their infinitely trying work; that with an heroic faith which was often unsupported by any earthly encouragement, High Churchmen, Low Churchmen, and Broad Churchmen were to be seen toiling in the slums, not like the

"Sluggard Pity's vision-weaving tribe
Who sigh for wretchedness, yet shun the wretched,
Nursing in some delicious solitude
Their dainty loves and slothful sympathies;"

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and that the police bore spontaneous and hearty testimony to the amelioration of desperate conditions and the marked diminution of crime. The rising generation especially were looked after, and every care was taken to improve the prospects of the future by inspiring the aims, and ameliorating the conditions, of those who are "the trustees of posterity." And all this is being done by clergymen whose earthly prospects are as poor as they possibly can be. Mr. Hall Caine's book may be most useful to all, from the true and indeed realistic pictures which it presents of the

"Dim populous pain and multitudinous woe,
Unheeded by the heedless world, which treads
The piteous upturned faces underfoot
In the gay rout which rushes to its ends."

All which he describes exists, and even worse than he describes; and, amid the fanfare of self-glorification in which we in England have been recently indulging, it is well that we should remember how many dim isles of misery lie in the splendid ocean of our national prosperity. Anything which may arouse us to do more than we are doing is useful; but if, while we are doing our very best, there is still a fearful residuum of crime and misery, it would be wrong to make it a reproach to us that man cannot do, and never has done, the work of Providence; that much of the best work, now and always, is quiet, noiseless, unknown work; that never were the efforts of the many who are "striving to raise strong arms to bring heaven a little nearer to our earth" more numerous and more energetic than they are now; that, so far from those efforts being left unblessed, the ameliorated conditions of life among the very lowest, the steady diminution of crime, the universal preaching of the Gospel to the poorest of the poor, furnish abundant cause for hopefulness and gratitude.

But while I have endeavored to place Mr. Hall Caine's "The Christian" in a light which may obviate unjust condemnation of it, by pointing out that it must, in the first instance, be judged dramatically and artistically as a simple story, I must add that it is full of very valuable lessons. Glory Quayle is not to me at all an attractive heroine; but the story of her erratic career may serve to illustrate how fearful is the battle which many a loving and impulsive woman has to fight single-handed in this cruel world. The coincident delineations of the life among the *jeunesse dorée* are full of powerful warning, and may serve to check the heartless and cruel villainies towards women of which they are said to be guilty by those who profess to know them, as I do not pretend to do. Assuming that the sketches of some theatres, of the race-course, of some men's clubs, of the music-halls, of the low public-houses, and of the irreligious section of fashionable life in the west end of London are accurate, they certainly deserved the indignant reprobation with which John Storm denounced them; even if his method of counteracting their inherent evils was foredoomed to be ineffective.

The state of society is not, indeed, worse, but, as far as we are able to judge, far better than it has been in most past ages even in Christian countries; but it is well for us not to rest upon our oars, and so be swept devilward by the subterranean currents; nor should we ever be tempted to say "Peace, peace" when there is no peace. The warfare with evil in the world needs all the best energies of all the best men in every age, and "in that warfare there is no discharge."

Much of the meaning of the book as the dramatic presentment of a certain modern clerical type is contained in the singularly interesting, and by no means unsympathetic, sketch of a severe revival of mediæval monasticism. The Father Superior is represented as a good and holy man, and it is not at all hinted that any of the monks are immoral or hypocritical. But, by a masterly analysis of thoughts and motives, enshrined in a most interesting narrative, Mr. Hall Caine shows how fatal in some natures is

"The strife
Of poor humanity's afflicted will
Struggling in vain with ruthless destiny."

The monastic life—as may be shown in multitudes of historic instances, and by the express testimony of not a few mediæval monks and supreme saints—though, in the holiest characters, it produced admirable types of saintliness like St. Bonaventura and St. Thomas Aquinas, yet in the case of multitudes, who were wholly unfitted to meet its responsibilities and difficulties, fostered a hopeless misery, a blighted uselessness, and an unspeakable degradation. Mr. Hall Caine shows that for many natures—even when

men are sincere and pure — such reversal of the divinely appointed conditions of ordinary life is illogical, and may lead, even in the case of noble and well-intentioned men, to dangerous results.

There is surely much that is of far more than passing interest in a book which was evidently intended to grapple with themes so serious as these. But I think that "The Christian" has one yet deeper and wider lesson. So far from implying that the ideal set before us by the Saviour of the world is *obsolete*, it indirectly yet decidedly sets it forth as divine and unapproachable. We cannot imitate the *externals* of the life of Christ, as sweet St. Francis of Assisi vainly tried to reproduce on the bleak hills of Umbria the outward features of a life spent on the hot levels of the Galilean lake. Nor can most men reproduce the spirit of Christ by trying to live celibate or wandering lives, or by such frantic endeavors as those of Stigmatists and Convulsionnaires. We can only follow Christ's footsteps from afar, though we can aim at showing at least those elementary Christian graces which are the very antithesis to the self-asserting, persecuting, and malignant arrogance of all forms of Pharisaism.

Such a life is not attainable by convulsive and hysterical efforts, but by uttermost faithfulness in "the trivial round and the common task." Our best efforts to be good, we know, are often unsuccessful. And if our lives often seem to be hopeless failures, it is something to know that the limitations of our success may be only temporal. If these lessons are not, in so many words, emphasized in "The Christian," it is because they lie outside the special object of the book. Yet such lessons are neither excluded nor denied. After all deductions, and all qualifications, it seems to me that "The Christian" is of much more serious import, and of much higher permanent value than the immense majority of novels which the Press continues to pour forth in such endless profusion. It is a book which makes us think.

F. W. FARRAR.

THE LATE HENRY GEORGE AND C. A. DANA

JOURNALISM has recently had to mourn the death of two New York editors, whose activities in their professional calling won eminence for both, though under unequal conditions and in diverse paths. With regard to Mr. George, the eminence was perhaps more truly notoriety, and notoriety achieved not so much from devotion to a great newspaper career, as in the case of Mr. Dana; but from devotion to an idea, which became the dominant force of his life, and to the exposition of which the apostle of land nationalization brought rare powers of earnest, forceful and often eloquent argument. There was, moreover, in Mr. George's case, a pathos, of which, when he was struck down, everyone was instantly sensible, in the sudden termination of an honest and purposeful life, while taking active part in a great election contest as the representative of an economic cause which he emphatically made his own, and at the same time valiantly championing the interests of sound morality and good government. If Mr. George has not had length of days, it was his, in his life-time, to see the fruit of laborious years spent in thought for humanity, and in arduous toil, at the hazard of his life, for the amelioration of his fellow creatures living under economical conditions which, whether ill or well conceived, he deemed could be bettered, if not radically changed. To these high humane ends, Mr. Henry George brought, besides unquestioned ability and great single-mindedness of purpose, that which always wins the great heart of the people — ardent enthusiasm, undaunted courage, and an honesty and disinterestedness of motive, worthy of a less speculative and, practically, more attainable cause. That death interposed as it did, was not an unkind fate for him, since it cut him off when his name was in well nigh everyone's mouth, not only as the exponent of economic views which, rightly or wrongly, he had toiled strenuously to propagate, but as the denouncer of that giant evil of the time — "Machine" government in municipal affairs, and the fearless advocate of a righteous civic administration.

It is said that Mr. George leaves behind him a new economical work, well nigh completed, in the writing of which

the leisure he could command during his closing years was spent. It is perhaps not vain to hope that, in this, the writer, with maturer views, may have modified the opinions he gave expression to in "Progress and Poverty," and adapted them to conditions, statutory as well as moral, under which the modern world lives, so that the theories to which he has hitherto tenaciously held shall not have the socialistic taint which has made them unpalatable to all reasonable and sane minds. Mr. George's land-ownership views, though theoretically admissible, are practically unadjustable to the conditions under which the race now lives, and could not, unless monstrous injustice were done, be enforced without compensation on a colossal and almost impossible scale. In the upward progress and amelioration of the race, it would be unspeakably calamitous to dally for a moment with confiscation. If we are to move in this direction, there must be compensation for the dispossession of private owners of the soil.

It is one thing, we ought to reflect, to declaim against the inequalities and evils of this world, and quite another to incite poverty to despoil wealth, and in the reconstructing process, so far as our present land laws go, to seek to revert to a state of nature. The worst of Mr. George's jeremiads is that, without any compensatory good,— since all amelioration in the lot of the poor must, like the methods of Nature itself, be a gradual process — he inflames minds already too prone to discontent, and would set at defiance all legislation which has recognized the immemorial rights of property and thus given its sacred ratification to enactments which are the incentives to toil and thrift. We repeat the expression of our hope that, in his forthcoming book, Mr. George's riper views on this vexed problem may be modified and made more practicable. If so, his memory will have greater reason to be cherished, as one who loved and faithfully labored for his kind.

The death of Mr. Dana withdraws an eminent figure from American journalism, while his culture and ability, manifested first in the New York "Tribune" and for the last thirty years in the New York "Sun," which he edited and almost wholly owned, make his removal a serious loss to letters. In his youth he coquetted, like Mr. George, with Socialism, though it was of the mild type indulged in by the Brook Farm community, and this he soon sloughed off when he took actively to the career of journalism. For the latter, his abilities and cultivation eminently well fitted him, and he succeeded in making an influential organ, as well as a lucrative property, of his newspaper. If its Americanism was rather aggressive and pronounced, and its tolerance of wrong in high places in which Democracy was installed, was hurtful to public morals, its readers could not but recognize the ability with which it was conducted and feel the power of the personality that lay behind it. Even his animosities, cruel as they sometimes were, were part of the man, as well as of the journal he so ably conducted; yet in spite of them, and of certain erratic moods and antagonistic qualities, he was a power on the press of this country. As against his journalistic work, public office had no attractions for Mr. Dana, though during the Lincoln régime he did good service for the Government, and for a time acted as assistant-secretary of war. Since 1868 he has been editor and the chief proprietor of the New York "Sun."

The death of Dr. Justin Winsor, Librarian of Harvard University, is another recent loss to American letters, which has here to be chronicled. Though widely known as one of the foremost and most scholarly of the librarians of this country, in connection not only with Harvard, but at an earlier and formative period with the Boston Public Library, Dr. Winsor has at the same time achieved distinction as an historical writer, and as perhaps the most accomplished student of American cartography. His knowledge of American history and its sources was profound, and this led to his appointby the United States Government as a member of the Venezuelan Commission and as geographical expert in the Bering Sea dispute with England and Canada. His chief publications are a "Memorial History of Boston" (1880–82), "Cartier to Frontenac" (1894), "The Mississippi Basin" (1895), and the elaborate "Narrative and Critical History of America," edited by him during the years 1884–89.

G. M. A.

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SOME DISTINCTIVE CHARACTERS OF THE HUMAN STRUCTURE: AN ADDRESS

By Sir. Wm. TURNER, President of the Anthropological Section of the British Science Association*

WHEN we look at man and contrast his form and appearance with other vertebrate creatures, the first thing, probably, to strike us is his capability of assuming an attitude which we distinguish by the distinctive term, the erect attitude. In this position the head is balanced on the summit of the spine, the lower limbs are elongated into two columns of support for standing on two feet or for walking, so that man's body is perpendicular to the surface on which he stands or moves, and his mode of progression is bipedal. As a consequence of this, two of his limbs, the arms, are liberated from locomotor functions; they acquire great freedom and range of movement at the shoulder joint, as well as considerable movement at the elbow and between the two bones of the forearm; the hands also are modified to serve as organs of prehension, which minister to the purposes of his higher intelligence. The erect position constitutes a striking contrast to the attitude assumed by fish, amphibia, and reptiles when at rest or moving, in which vertebrates the body is horizontal and more or less parallel to the surface on which they move. Birds, although far removed from the erect attitude, yet show a closer approximation to it than the lower vertebrates or even the quadrupedal mammals. But of all vertebrates those which most nearly approximate to man in the position assumed by the body when standing and walking are the higher apes.

Man, His Erect Attitude

Adaptations of Structure

The various adaptations of structure in the trunk, limbs, head and brain which conduce to give man this characteristic attitude are essential parts of his bodily organization, and constitute the structural test which one employs in answering the question whether a particular organism is or is not human.

These adaptations of parts are not mere random arrangements, made at haphazard and without a common purpose, but are correlated and harmonized so as to produce a being capable of taking a distinctive position in the universe, superior to that which any other organism can possibly assume. If we could imagine a fish, a reptile, or a quadruped to be provided with as highly developed a brain as man possesses, the horizontal attitude of these animals would effectually impede its full and proper use, so that it would be of but little advantage to them. It is essential, therefore, for the discharge of the higher functions of man that the human brain should be conjoined with the erect attitude of the body. The passage of a vertebrate organism from the horizontal position, say of a fish, in which the back, with its contained spinal column, is uppermost and the head is in front, to the vertical or erect position of a man, in which the back, with its contained spinal column, is behind and the head is uppermost, may be taken as expressing the full range and limit of evolution, so far as the attitude is concerned, of which such an organism is capable. Any further revolution of the body, as in the backward direction, would throw the back downwards, the head backwards and would constitute a degradation. It would not be an advance in the adaptation of structure to the duties to be discharged, but, rather, an approach to the relation of parts existing so generally in invertebrate organisms.

*The author of this interesting paper, read before the British Association at its August meeting at Toronto, Canada, is Prof. Sir William Turner, D. Sc., F. R. S., etc., the great anatomist, and member of the Royal College of Surgeons. Sir William was born at Lancaster, England, in 1832, and took his degree in medicine, with the gold medal of the university of London in 1857. In 1854 he was appointed Demonstrator of Anatomy in the University of Edinburgh, and in 1867 he became Professor of Anatomy. He has published numerous memoirs on subjects connected with his profession, besides contributing to the transactions of many learned scientific bodies. He is the editor of the "Journal of Anatomy and Physiology."

Ed. S. C.

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Man, the Crown and Glory of Organic Nature

At an early period in the evolution of the human mind and intelligence, an anthropomorphic conception of the Deity arose, to whom was ascribed the possession of the bodily form and attitude of man, and even human affections and passions. This idea took so firm possession of the imagination that in the course of time it obtained objective expression in the statues of ancient Greece and Rome and in the masterpieces of Christian art. In one of the most ancient of all books, in which is embodied the conception entertained by the Jewish writers of the Genesis of the world and of all creatures that have life, we read that "God created man in His own image, in the image of God created He him, male and female created He them." By the association, therefore, of the human form with the idea of Deity, there was naturally present in the minds of these writers, although not expressed in precise anatomical language, a full recognition of the dignity of the human body, of its superiority to that of all other creatures and that the human form was the crown and glory of all organic nature.

This conception of the dignity of man is not confined to those writings which we are accustomed to call sacred. The immortal Greek philosopher and naturalist, Aristotle, in his treatise "On the Parts of Animals," composed at least three hundred years B. C., refers more than once to the erect attitude of man, and associates it with his "God-like nature and God-like essence." In the second century of our present era lived another Greek author, Claudius Galen, whose writings exercised for many centuries a dominating influence in medicine and anatomy, comparable to that wielded by Aristotle in philosophy. Although Galen, as has been shown by Vesalius and other subsequent anatomists, was often incorrect in his descriptions of the internal parts of the human body, doubtless because his opportunities of dissection were so scant, he had attained a correct conception of the perfection of its external form, and he thoroughly understood that in its construction it was admirably fitted for the sentient and intelligent principle which animated it, and of which it was merely the organ. In his treatise on the use of the various parts of the body, he associates the hand with the exercise of the gift of reason in man, and he speaks of it as an instrument applicable to every art and occasion, as well of peace as of war. It is, he says, the best constructed of all prehensile organs, and he gives a careful description of how both the hand as a whole and the individual digits, more especially the thumb, are brought into use in the act of grasping. Galen does not, indeed, enter into the minute anatomical details which have been emphasized by more recent writers on the subject, but by none of these has the use of the hand and its association with man's higher intelligence been more clearly and more eloquently expressed than by the Greek physician and philosopher seventeen centuries ago.

Men and Apes

By the publication in 1859 of Charles Darwin's ever-memorable treatise "On the Origin of Species," an enormous impulse was given to the study of the anatomy of man in comparison with the lower animals, more especially with the apes. By many anatomists the study was pursued with the view of pointing out the resemblances in structure between men and apes; by a more limited number to show wherein they did not correspond. I well remember a course of lectures on the comparative characters of man delivered thirty-five years ago by my old master, Professor John Goodsir, in which, when speaking of the hand of man and apes, he dwelt upon sundry features of difference between them. The human hand, he said, is the only one which possesses a thumb capable of a free and complete movement of opposition. It may be hollowed into a cup and it can grasp a sphere. It is an instrument of manipulation co-extensive with human activity. The ape's hand, again, is an imperfect hand, with a short and feeble thumb, and with other clearly-defined points of difference and inferiority to that of man. It can embrace a cylinder, as the branch of a tree, and is principally subservient to the arboreal habits of the animal. Its fingers grasp the cylinder in a series of spirals.

Here, then, is a very important difference in the manipulative arrangements of the two hands, the advantage being with the hand of man, in regard to the greater variety of movement and adaptability, to co-ordinate it with his

reasoning faculties. As showing the acuteness of perception of Galen and his complete recognition of a fundamental feature of the human hand, he also dwells on the hand being able to form a circle around a sphere, so as to grasp it on every side and to touch it with every part of itself, whilst it can also securely hold objects that possess plane or concave surfaces. So impressed was the old Greek writer with the fitness of the hand to discharge the duties imposed on it by the higher intelligence of man that, pagan though he was, he regarded its construction as evidence of design in nature, and as a sincere hymn to the praise and honor of the Deity. It is not my intention to discuss the multitudinous details of those features of structure which distinguish man from other vertebrates, for these have been considered and described by numerous writers. The leading structural differentiæ constitute the merest commonplaces of the human anatomist, and are already sufficiently imprinted on the popular mind. But it may not be out of place to refer to certain aspects of the subject which are not so generally known, and the significance of which has been brought into greater prominence by recent researches.

The New-Born Infant If we compare the new-born infant with the young of vertebrates generally, we find a striking difference in its capability of immediately assuming the characteristic attitude of the species. A fish takes its natural posture and moves freely in its element as soon as it is hatched. A chicken can stand and walk when it is liberated from the egg, though, from its wings not being developed, it is not at once able to fly. A lamb or calf can assume the quadrupedal position in a few minutes after its birth. But, as we all know, the infant is the most helpless of all young vertebrates, and is months before it can stand on two feet and move freely on them. There is this great difference between the young of a quadruped and that of a man, that whilst the former is born with the dorso-lumbar curve proper to its attitude, and which it retains throughout life, the child does not possess, either when born or for some months after its birth, the characteristic spinal curves of the man. These curves are therefore secondary in their production; they are acquired after birth and are not imprinted on the human spine from the beginning, though the capability of acquiring them at the proper time is a fundamental attribute of the human organism.

It has sometimes been assumed that the acquisition of the erect attitude by the young child is due to the fostering care of the mother or nurse; that it is a matter of training, encouragement and education, without which the child would not raise itself upon its feet. I cannot, however, agree with this opinion. If one could conceive an infant so circumstanced that, though duly provided with food fitted for its nutrition and growth, it should never receive any aid or instruction in its mode of progression, there can, I think, be little doubt that when it had gained sufficient strength it would of itself acquire the erect attitude. The greater growth in length of the lower limbs, as compared with the upper, would render it inconvenient to retain the creeping or the quadrupedal position.

We cannot lose sight of the important influence which, altogether independent of education, is exercised by parents on their offspring. The transmission of hereditary qualities, through the germ from which each individual organism is derived, is one of the fundamental and most striking properties of the germ plasm. Characteristics and peculiarities, which appertain not only to the family of which the individual is a member, but also to the species to which he belongs, are conveyed through it from one generation to another. Hence, as the capability of assuming the erect attitude and of thus standing and moving on two feet have been attributes of the human form from its beginning, there can be little doubt that this power is potential in the human organism at the time of birth, and only requires a further development of the nervous and muscular systems to become a reality, without the aid of any special training.

The Spinal Column The spinal column, in the region of the true vertebræ, consists of numerous bones joined together, and with discs of soft fibro-cartilage interposed between and connecting the bodies of adjoining vertebræ with each other. It is to their presence that the spinal column owes its flexibility and elasticity. These discs are larger

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and thicker in the region of the loins, where the lumbar convexity is situated, than in other parts of the column, and there can be no doubt that the acquisition of this convexity is intimately associated with the presence of these discs.

It is a matter for observation and consideration to what extent the bodies of the vertebræ contribute to the production of this curve. A few years ago Prof. Cunningham, of Dublin, and I, undertook much about the same time researches into the form and dimensions of the bodies of these bones. Our observations were made independently of each other and on two different series of skeletons, and, as we arrived at practically the same conclusions, we may, I think, infer that, in their main features at least, these conclusions are correct.

The method followed in the investigation was to measure the diameter from above downwards of the body of each of the five lumbar vertebræ, both in front and behind. If the upper and lower surfaces of the bodies of the vertebræ were parallel to each other, it is obvious that, so far as they are concerned, the column formed by them would be straight, as in the case in a column built of hewn stones possessing similar parallel surfaces. But if the surfaces are not parallel the body of the vertebræ is wedge-shaped; should the front of the collective series of bones have a greater vertical diameter than the back, it is equally obvious that the column would not be straight, but curved, and with the convexity forwards. From the examination of a considerable number of spinal columns of Europeans, we found that, although the vertical diameter of the bodies of the two highest vertebræ was greater behind than in front, in the two lowest the anterior vertical diameter so greatly preponderated over the posterior that the anterior vertical diameter of the bodies of the entire series of lumbar vertebræ in each spine was collectively greater than the corresponding diameter of the posterior surface. In twelve European skeletons I observed that the mean difference was between five and six millimetres in favor of the anterior surface. If we are to regard the collective vertical diameter anteriorly of the five bones as equal to 100, the same diameter posteriorly is only equal to ninety-six, which may be regarded as the lumbar index in Europeans. Dr. Cunningham obtained a similar index from the examination of a much larger number of European skeletons, and he further showed that in women the lumbar convexity forwards is more pronounced than in men. It follows, therefore, from these observations, that when the broad end of the wedge-shaped bodies is in front, the bones themselves would by their form give a forward convexity to the spine in the lumbar region. But a similar wedge-shaped form is also possessed by the lower intervertebral discs in this region, and especially by that interposed between the last lumbar vertebræ and the sacrum. Hence it follows that both vertebral bodies and intervertebral discs contribute in the white races to the production of the lumbar convexity.

The Lower Races

When we pass to the examination of the corresponding region in the spines of those races of men that we are accustomed to call lower races, we find a remarkable and important difference. Let us take as a characteristic example of a lower race, the aborigines of Australia. In their skeletons our observations have proved that the vertical diameter of the bodies of the five lumbar vertebræ was collectively deeper behind than in front. In my series of skeletons the mean difference was between six and seven millimeters in favor of the posterior surface, so that they possessed the opposite condition to that which prevails in Europeans. Hence, if the spine had been constructed of vertebræ only instead of a lumbar convexity, the column would have possessed a forward concavity in that region. For this character, as shown in the skeleton only, I have suggested the descriptive term "Koilorachic."

We know, however, that elastic discs are intercalated between the bodies of the osseous vertebræ in the black races as well as in Europeans. It is necessary, therefore, to examine their spinal columns when the intervertebral discs are in position, in order to obtain a proper conception of the character of the curve in the living man.

No material difference between the Races

A few years ago Prof. Cunningham had the opportunity of studying the spinal column of an aboriginal Australian, in which the intervertebral discs had been

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preserved in their proper position, in relation to the bones, without losing their flexibility, or their natural shape and thickness. He found that, whilst the bodies of the lumbar vertebræ were longer than in Europeans, the proportion of intervertebral disc to vertebral body was distinctly less, so that the disc appeared to be reduced in depth, in relation to the greater vertical diameter of the vertebral body. Notwithstanding this difference, as compared with the white man, the Australian spine had a marked lumbar convexity which showed no material difference from that seen in Europeans. As the lumbar curve was not due to the wedge-shaped form of the bodies of the vertebræ, it was therefore produced solely by the strong wedge-shape of the intervertebral discs, and was not, as in Europeans, a product of a combination of both these factors. The spinal column, when complete, is not therefore koilorachic in the lumbar region.

The greater vertical diameter of the bodies of the lumbar-vertebræ behind than in front, as compared with Europeans, is not limited to the Australians, but is participated in by other black races, as the now extinct Tasmanians, the Bushmen, Andaman Islanders and Negroes, which, if tested solely by the measurements of the skeleton, would also be koilorachic. But in these races intervertebral discs are also present, and there can be no doubt that through the compensating influence of the wedge-shaped discs, with their deeper ends in front, the lumbar curve is in them also convex forwards. It is clear, therefore, that in the black races the intervertebral discs play relatively a more important part in the production of the lumbar curve than in Europeans.

One of the requirements of civilization is the wearing of clothes, and fashion frequently prescribes that they should be tight-fitting and calculated to restrict motion in and about the spinal column. In savage races, on the other hand, clothing is often reduced to a minimum, and when worn is so loose and easy as in no way to hamper the movements of the body. The spinal column retains, therefore, in them much more flexibility, and permits the greater measure of freedom in the movements of the trunk, which is found in savage man, and has often been referred to by travellers.

The Human Spine

It used to be considered that the possession of a lumbar convexity in the spinal column was the exclusive privilege of man, and was shared in by no other vertebrate. There can be no doubt that it attains a marked development in the human spine, and as such is associated with the erect posture. But the observations of Cunningham on the spinal column of apes, more especially the anthropoid group, made in fresh specimens, in which the intervertebral discs were in place, have proved that in the chimpanzee the lumbar convexity is probably as strongly pronounced as in the adult man. In a chimpanzee two years old the development is more advanced than in a child of the same age, for it would seem as if the chimpanzee attained its maturity at a younger period of life than the human being. In the orang the lumbar curve is more feeble than in man and the chimpanzee, and in the specimen described by Cunningham resembled that of a boy six years old. In a fresh specimen of the gibbon, examined by the same anatomist, the lumbar curve was intermediate between the chimpanzee and the orang.

In 1888 I purchased the bones of an adult male gorilla, in which the vertebræ were in position and closely connected by the dried intervertebral discs. This condition is, of course, not so satisfactory for the study of the spinal curves as if the specimen had been fresh, and with the discs retaining their natural flexibility and elasticity. But it was quite obvious that the spine possessed an alternating series of convex-concave curves from above downwards. The cervical and lumbar convexities, more especially the latter, did not project so far forwards as in man, and the dorsal concavity was not so deep. The most projecting part of the lumbar convexity was at the junction of the bodies of the third and fourth lumbar vertebræ and their intermediate disc. A vertical line drawn downward from the most prominent part of the convexity fell in front of the coccyx. When prolonged upwards it passed in front of the bodies of the dorsal vertebræ, and intersected the body of the sixth cervical vertebræ, so that the bodies of the vertebra, higher than the sixth, were directed obliquely from below upwards and forwards in front of the vertical line.

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The dried state of the discs did not enable one to determine precisely the proportion in which they entered into the formation of the length of the column, but the vertical diameter of the interlumbar and lumbo-sacral discs was obviously not as great as in the human spine. On the other hand, the vertical diameter of the bodies of the lumbar vertebræ was greater than in man, so that the length of the lumbar spine, and possibly its degree of convexity, were due more to the bodies of the vertebræ than to the elastic discs interposed between them. The gorilla corresponds with the chimpanzee in having longer vertebral bodies and shorter intervertebral discs than in man.

Without going into the question whether a lumbar convexity exists in the tailed monkeys, the determination of which with precision is a matter of some difficulty, it must be obvious that the presence of this convexity can no longer be regarded as the exclusive prerogative of man. It undoubtedly forms an important factor in the study of the erect attitude; but, in order that man should acquire and be able to retain his distinctive posture, something more is necessary than the possession of a spinal column with a curve in the lumbar region convex forwards.

The Lower Limbs

Our attention should now be directed to the lower limbs, more especially to the two segments of the shaft, which we call thigh and leg.

If we look at a quadruped we see that the thigh is bent on the trunk at the hip joint, and that the leg is bent on the thigh at the knee joint; whilst the foot forms more or less of an angle with the leg, and the animal walks either on the soles of its feet or on its toes. In the anthropoid apes there is also distinct flexure both of the hip and knee joints, so that the leg and thigh are set at an angle to each other, and the foot is modified, through a special development of the great toe, into an organ of prehension as well as of support. When we turn to the human body we find that in standing erect the leg and thigh are not set at an angle to each other, but that the leg is in line with and immediately below the thigh, that both hip and knee joints are fully extended, so that the axis of the shaft of the lower limb is practically continuous with the axis of the spine. The foot is set at right angles to the leg, and the sole is in relation to the ground. The vertical axis of the shaft of the lower limb, the extended condition of the hip and knee joints, and the rectangular position of the foot to the leg are therefore fundamental to the attainment of the erect attitude of man.

We may now consider what agents come into operation in changing the curve of the spine from the concavity forwards, found in the new-born infant, to the alternating series of curves so characteristic of the adult. The production of the lumbar convexity is, without doubt, due to structures associated with the spine, the pelvis, and the lower limbs, whilst the cervical convexity is due to structures acting on the spine and the head.

There can, I think, be little doubt that muscular action plays a large part in the production of the cervical and lumbar convexities. The study of the muscles, associated with and connected to the spinal column, shows that large symmetrically arranged muscles, many of which are attached to the neural arches and transverse processes of the vertebræ, extend longitudinally along the back of the spine, and some of them reach the head. On the other hand, those muscles which lie in front of the spine, and are attached to the vertebræ, are few in number, and are practically limited to the cervical and lumbar regions, in which the spine acquires a convexity forwards.

Prof. Turner then directed his attention to the bones in the thigh and the leg, which possess characteristics that are distinctively human, and which are associated with the erect posture. These characters were made more easily recognizable by contrasting the bones with the corresponding bones of the large anthropoid apes. He also made an examination of the human foot, and in order to bring out more clearly its primary use as an organ of support and progression, he contrasted it with the human hand and with the manus hand and pes foot of the ape. The concluding portion of the present paper will deal with the directing mechanism of the body, the brain, its weight and quality, the nerve cells, association centres, and their function.

[To be concluded in January.]

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THE LATEST CRITIC ON SIR WALTER SCOTT

THE fame of the "good Sir Walter," as the years pass, suffers no diminishing, nor does interest abate in the man or his writings. Of the myriad works by the authors of the present century, few are more likely than are Sir Walter Scott's to defy the ravages of time and the caprices of fashion in public taste. Perhaps this perennial interest in Scott is, in some measure, due to the fact that his countrymen are to be found in every clime and carry with them, wherever they go, their fervent attachment to the classics of their language and an ardent devotion to the genius of their beautiful historic land. And yet there are, perhaps, no more enthusiastic admirers of the great literary chieftain of the land of the Scot than are to be found among English littérateurs and critics, the latest of whom, the eminent Prof. George Saintsbury, has given us a charming appreciation of this great Scottish author in the current volume of the "Famous Scot Series."

Of the change in literary taste which substituted romantic for classical topics and sentiment, Scott, says a critic, was the first great British representative. Unlike his contemporaries, who were deeply stirred by the political convulsions of the period, he took his subjects from the remote past, and began his career by reviving the spirit of the ancient French and Anglo-Norman Trouvères. When his poetic vein became exhausted, he entered the field of prose fiction, where he stood without a rival. He placed the novel on the firm foundation it has since held, and enhanced its value by giving it a more artistic form, by enlarging the range of its subjects, and by making it a medium for moral and intellectual culture. Scott's great strength lay in his shrewdness of observation, the fruitful richness of his fancy, and the abundant and varied resources of his memory. To these qualities, united with high spirit, tender sensibility, and antiquarian tastes, we owe his best novels as well as his finest poems. In narration and description he has never been excelled, and in imaginative and creative powers he ranks next to Homer and Shakespeare.

In delineating character as in depicting nature, Scott contents himself with the surface. Unlike those of George Eliot, his works contain no profound analyses of human motives, nor do they display the philosophic bent, the refinement of imagination, and the perception of the mysteries of creation which characterized his greatest contemporaries. No one, however, has surpassed him in vivid and palpable reproduction of the past. Not that in every detail he is invariably realistic. Of errors in fact he is sometimes guilty; but he never fails to infuse into his work the general spirit of the period in which he lays his scene. While his poems are pure romances, his novels give the unromantic as well as the romantic side of life; his characters are not mere individuals, but individuals as they were influenced by the public and social strifes of their times. Tragic intensity Scott possesses, as well as infinite humor; lyrical excellence, as well as dramatic talent.

Always easy and graphic, Scott's style is animated and graceful, though often careless and incorrect. He wrote with great rapidity, aiming merely at broad, general effects; he cared more for striking picturesqueness than for melody and minute artistic details. Before the publication of "Waverley" Scotland was a comparatively unknown land. Scott's fervid patriotism has made his country famous. To his genius and industry he owed much of his popularity, but he owed no little to the unexceptionable morality of his productions. It filled his eyes with tears to be told that he was doing good by his noble and fascinating tales. On his deathbed, it consoled him that he had not compromised the interests of virtue.

"Perhaps no two admirers of Scott," observes a recent English writer, in referring to Prof. Saintsbury's monograph, "are in agreement as to the value of his different works. It is interesting, therefore, to note the views of a practiced critic like Mr. Saintsbury. 'Marmion' he regards as 'by far the greatest, taking all constituents of poetical greatness together, of Scott's poems. . . . The last canto of "Marmion," and the last few sections of the "Nibelungen Lied" are perhaps the only things in all poetry where a set continuous battle (not a series of duels as in Homer) is related with unerring

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success; and the steady *crescendo* of the whole, considering its length and intensity, is really miraculous.' While giving the palm to 'Marmion,' Mr. Saintsbury duly appreciates the liberal provision of exciting incidents in 'The Lay of the Last Minstrel,' and the brilliant passages it contains, 'the splendid Melrose opening of the second canto,' for instance, and many others. His admiration of 'The Lady of the Lake' is somewhat measured, yet he has praise for the fine Spenserian openings, 'the famous beginning of the Stag,' 'various other descriptions and incidents, and the songs, especially the masterly 'coronach.' 'Rokeby,' in spite of drawbacks, he pronounces to be a 'very delightful' poem, 'and to some tastes, at least, very far above "The Lady of the Lake."' The faults of 'The Lord of the Isles' are obvious enough, but there are excellent passages in it; amongst them being 'the Abbot's extorted blessing on the Bruce; the great picture of Loch Coruisk, and Bannockburn.'

"The limits of space imposed on Mr. Saintsbury have debarred him from doing full justice to Scott's miscellaneous verse; but he speaks of his gift of 'incomparable lyric snatch, from the drums and fifes of "Lochinvar" and "Bonnie Dundee" to the elfin music of "Proud Maisie;"' of the force, and fire, and unstudied melody of the best of his shorter poems; and of the marvellous felicity of his 'Old Play' fragments.

"Passing to the novels, Mr. Saintsbury criticises them in the order of their production. We must confine ourselves to noticing a few only of his appreciations. 'Guy Mannering' is 'perhaps the very best of the novels for merit of construction and interest in detail.' 'Old Mortality' contains 'one of the first and greatest of Scott's splendid gallery of romantic-historic portraits—the stately figure of Claverhouse.' In 'Rob Roy' 'the succession of scenes hurries the reader along without breath or time to stop and criticise, with nothing to do, if he is a reasonable person, but to read and enjoy and admire. As for Di Vernon, she is the one of Scott's heroines with whom one *has to* fall in love, just as, according to a beautiful story, a thoughtless and reluctant world *had to* believe the Athanasian Creed.' In 'The Heart of Midlothian,' the description of the lynching of Porteous and the matchless interview with Queen Caroline are only the very best of such a series of good things that, save just at the end, it may be said to be uninterrupted.

"'I do not know,' Mr. Saintsbury goes on to say, 'that Scott ever showed his actual original genius, his faculty of creation and combination, to such an extent and in such proportion again.' As regards 'The Bride of Lammermoor,' Mr. Saintsbury makes a very exceptional pronouncement. He regards it as Scott's first approach to failure in prose. Lockhart thought it 'the most pure and perfect of all the tragedies that Scott ever penned.' And of a truth there are many who agree with Lockhart. Macaulay wrote of 'The Bride:' 'In this tale, above other modern productions, we see embodied the dark spirit of fatalism—that spirit which breathes in the writings of the Greek tragedians when they traced the persecuting vengeance of Destiny against the houses of Laius and of Atreus. Their mantle was for a while worn unconsciously by him who showed to us Macbeth; and here again, in the deepening gloom of this tragic tale, we feel the oppressive influence of this invisible power.' Mr. Saintsbury atones for his depreciation of 'The Bride' by his praise of 'A Legend of Montrose.' He cites episodes forming 'an exemplary specimen of the kind of interest which Scott's best novels possess as nothing of the kind had before possessed it, and as few things out of Dumas have possessed it since.' He goes on to say, 'Nor can the most fervent admirer of Chicot and Porthos—I know none more fervent than myself—say in cool blood that their creator could have created Dalgetty, who is at once an admirable human being, a wonderful national type of the more eccentric kind, and the embodiment of an astonishing amount of judiciously adjusted erudition.'

"'Ivanhoe' is a great book from beginning to end. It contains 'such a plethora of creative and descriptive wealth as nobody but Scott has ever put together in prose,' and nothing that he ever did is better than the portrait of King James in 'The Fortunes of Nigel,' 'which, in the absence of one from the hand of His Majesty's actual subject for some dozen years, Mr. William Shakespeare, of New Place, Stratford, is probably the most

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perfect thing of the kind that ever could have been or can be done.' *

"Scott did a certain amount of what may be called, in comparison with his poetry and romances, pure hack work. His 'Life of Napoleon,' for instance, as Mr. Saintsbury says, could have been done as well by at least a dozen of Scott's contemporaries. Of a very different character is the delightful history of Scotland, called 'Tales of a Grandfather,' which came as easily from Scott's pen as the 'Napoleon' had run with difficulty. As to its general historic effect, Mr. Saintsbury once asked the opinion of a professed historian, one of the best living authorities on the subject. The answer was that 'it was about the soundest thing, putting mere details aside, that exists on the matter.'

"It does one's heart good, at a time when the fribbles of this fag-end of a century speak lightly of Scott, to find a critic of Mr. Saintsbury's insight and experience heartily appreciating his work in prose and verse, and giving vigorous reasons for his appreciation. There are intellectual fashions and fopperies that come into vogue and pass away, like fashions in dress. John Lyly, the author of 'Euphues,' supplies an example of this. We are not sure that Mr. Saintsbury has not done this superfine dramatist too much honor in taking the trouble to draw a contrast between him and Scott. Lyly achieved popularity for a time, but the fame his fine-spun diction earned him is withered and dead. Scott, though not standing on the same high pinnacle as Homer and Shakespeare, resembles those mighty masters in having presented in vivid portraiture, as they did, living and breathing men and women, stirred by the passions and emotions that have been characteristic of humanity in all ages.

"So far we have spoken of Scott as a writer. With regard to Scott as a man, every new item of evidence that has come to light has made more and more manifest the sterling lovableness and genial human kindness of his nature. As Mr. Saintsbury says of him: 'More blameless morally few men have been; fewer still were better equipped with the positive virtues. And, above all, we must recognize in Scott (if we have any power of recognition) a certain nobleness, a certain natural inclination towards all things high, and great, and pure, and of good report, which is rarer still than negative blamelessness or even than positive virtue.'"

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* The reader of Scott's Novels may be interested in the following tabular view of the series, which includes historical epochs and dates, and shows the vast and varied range of the author's subjects: — ED. S. C.

HISTORICAL.

Waverley	(1814)	Scottish	Pretender's Attempt 1745
Old Mortality	(1816)	"	Rebellion of the Covenanters 1679
Legend of Montrose	(1819)	"	Civil War 1645
The Abbot	(1820)	"	Mary, Queen of Scotts 1567
The Monastery	(1820)	"	" " " 1550
Fair Maid of Perth	(1828)	"	Reign of Robert III. 1402
Castle Dangerous	(1831)	"	Black Douglas 1306
Ivanhoe	(1819)	English	Richard Cœur-de-Lion 1194
Kenilworth	(1821)	"	Reign of Elizabeth 1575
Fortunes of Nigel	(1822)	"	Reign of James I. 1604
Peveril of the Peak	(1823)	"	Reign of Charles II. 1678
Betrothed	(1825)	"	Welsh Wars 1187
Talisman	(1825)	"	Richard Cœur-de-Lion 1191
Woodstock	(1826)	"	Civil War and Commonwealth 1652
Quentin Durward	(1823)	Continental	Louis XI. and Charles the Bold 1468
Anne of Geierstein	(1829)	"	Epoch of the Battle of Newry 1474
Count Robert of Paris	(1831)	"	Crusaders at Byzantium 1098

SOCIAL.

Guy Mannering	(1815),	1765	*St. Ronan's Well*	(1823),	1812
Antiquary	(1816),	1795	*Redgauntlet*	(1824),	1763
Black Dwarf	(1816),	1706	*Surgeon's Daughter*	(1827),	1780
Rob Roy	(1817),	1715	*Two Drovers*	(1827),	1795
Heart of Midlothian	(1818),	1736	*Highland Widow*	(1827),	1775
Bride of Lammermoor	(1819),	1695	*My Aunt Margaret's Mirror*	(1828),	1702
The Pirate	(1821),	1700	*The Tapestried Chamber*	(1828),	1782

The latter class relates chiefly to Scottish scenes and characters, and subordinates to these the historical interest when it forms an element in their composition.

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

With Departments Devoted to the Interests of The Home University League.

Every person has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—GIBBON.

VOL. VI DECEMBER, 1897 NO. 3

G. MERCER ADAM, EDITOR
HOWARD P. RUGGLES, BUSINESS MANAGER

THE MAYORALTY CONTEST IN NEW YORK

In the contest last month for the mayoralty of Greater New York, Tammany, our readers will know, has won. The issue we cannot but deplore, though we cast no horoscope, and are therefore not compromised by having hazarded an opinion as to the result. The defeat of the Citizens' Union representative, to whom we looked to save the city from four years of probable misgovernment, has not caused us to lose faith in the ultimate issue of the conflict against the power of the Boss. That issue, in the long run, must prevail, though constant effort and vigilance will be necessary successfully to cope with the menace. While party government continues, and the spoils are the prize of office, there will, of course, be the Machines, and no spasmodic or merely tentative movement of public virtue will suffice to break their power or keep the hand of the corrupter from doing evil.

Though we hoped for another result, we nevertheless deem the Citizens' Union movement vindicated, and the moral effect of the organization, we feel assured, will not pass away with the failure of the effort to instal Mr. Seth Low. Nor can the Republican party which clung so obstinately to Mr. Platt and the Machine, thus playing into the hands of Tammany, fail to see the loss sustained by its partisanship and the heedlessness and impolicy of its attitude in the campaign. If it had the good government of the city, rather than the impossible triumph of its candidate, at heart, and realized the supreme importance of defeating Tammany, it would have coalesced with the forces of reform, instead of standing aloof and contributing to the disaster which happened. But partisanship is rarely ever wise, and the Boss issue could not, of course, come home to the supporters of Mr. Tracy as it came home to those of Mr. Low; while slavish loyalty to the tariff, and possibly antagonism to puritanical reform, kept Republican voters (if the pleasantry is excused) within the *traces* of their organization.

From this subserviency to Bosses, especially in municipal contests, we had hoped that all responsible and thoughtful voters in the Republican party were free. Free, in the recent election, we are thankful to say, a large proportion of them were, without being, in the least, disloyal to the party principles, or indifferent to the gravity of the issue which every anti-Tammany citizen ought to have had at heart. The returns establish that beyond a doubt, though the figures unhappily show a still large number who clung to the caucus and its manipulators, and whose votes, as we have said, had they been combined, would have turned the scale incontestably in Mr. Low's favor. That the great metropolitan city of the continent, with its vast commercial interests, will now, for some years, be at the mercy of the hardly disguised brigandage into which its administration has fallen, cannot but be a shock to the whole commonwealth; and if a period of renewed and unblushing civic plunder ensues, we shall know, poor as the consolation is, at what door to lay the dishonor and the blame.

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CANADIAN OVERTURES FOR RECIPROCITY

The Cobden Club medal, conferred in England in the past summer on the Liberal Canadian Premier, is evidently about to be earned by its distinguished free-trade recipient. Sir Wilfred Laurier has just been paying a visit to Washington, where his *bonhomie* and engaging manners, no less than his fine abilities, have captivated the President and his Cabinet, and favorably impressed the statesmen of both parties with whom he has had informal conferences. The honors and distinctions paid to him in England, and his felicitous economic and patriotic speeches

there during the Jubilee celebration, have not interfered with his coming, along with his finance minister, to Washington, to make himself a *persona grata* in official and diplomatic circles. His object in this is, first of all, to remove, as far as Canada is concerned, the chief causes of friction and unpleasantness between Britain and the United States, and, prospectively, to arrange for an enlarged measure of reciprocal trade between the Republic and the colony. The time, he shrewdly thinks, propitious on both sides the boundary line for this purpose, as it would seem to be propitious to the Canadian Liberal leader and his Government at Ottawa, since only with a Liberal administration in the neighboring Dominion could this country, with any degree of heartiness, negotiate for freer and more extended commercial relations.

Among members of past American administrations, as well as of both Houses, who are inclined to liberal opinions in economical matters, there has always been a disposition to make gaps in, if not to throw down altogether, the Chinese wall between the countries and to give full scope to commercial intercourse. The same desire has also actuated the mass of the Canadian Liberals. The gain that would accrue to both peoples, even were reciprocity confined only to natural products, would be great, while the difficulty, on our side at least, need not be serious in adjusting the tariff to the altered conditions. The prosperous outlook now in Canada, which increases the buying power of the colony, and the extending field there for profitable American investment, both in mines and in the vast farming lands of the rich North-West, invite to the freest trade relations, and to closer dealings that need not imperil the political integrity of the less wealthy and more sensitive country, or fail to be of great advantage to the immense manufacturing interests of the United States. Hence, there would seem to be wisdom in giving the Canadian delegation a ready hearing, and in considering how far this country would do well to meet the Dominion Government's views in regard to increased trade between the two kindred and progressive peoples and the maintenance of the friendliest political relations. The opportunity at least would be worth embracing did the Canadian mission, aside from trade matters, result in settling open international disputes, such as those with which diplomacy has had to deal between the countries and particularly with the Canadian motherland.

POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANKS

A widespread desire has of late been manifested throughout the country for Postal Savings Banks, in the interest of the working classes and of persons of small means. The desire may well be gratified, since it tends to economies and thrift on the part of the people and to habits of saving which it is proper to encourage, particularly when it can be done with absolute security to the depositor and with confident trust in the *bona fides* of the Government. The system, it must be known to our readers, has worked well in foreign countries, and especially in the British Isles and dependencies, the statistics of which testify to the large advantage taken of the system by the masses, and afford proof of the thrifty Scotch proverb, that "Many a mickle makes a muckle," or, to modernize Chaucer: "Many a small maketh a great." Much the same idea is aptly expressed in the injunction: "Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves."

Concurring in the habits of thrift which the system encourages, and seeing in the establishment of these Savings Banks a beneficent enterprise on behalf of the people, the Postmaster-General at Washington has, we are glad to see, recommended their adoption. He moreover speaks of the system furnishing a fund, which, as it accumulates, "would find its way usefully into the channels of trade and commerce and be a valuable feeder to the financial currents of the country." That the system, if established, would bring the Government into injurious competition with private enterprises already in existence, we hardly think likely, since the facilities which the Government, it is hoped, will offer will, in the main, attract, not those who are already depositors, and investors, but the large and widespread class that hitherto has had nothing laid by "for a rainy day," or that furtively hides its little hoardings in a stocking.

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THE AUSTRIAN CRISIS The condition, bordering upon political chaos, at present prevailing in the dual monarchy of Austro-Hungary has, in the main, race complications as its cause. It is this that has made difficult, for many a day past, the problem of government in the Empire-Kingdom. The factors in the conflict, which find the theatre of their jarring contentions in the Reichsrath, may be readily divined by recalling the multifarious elements in the Imperial Parliament, including besides the Magyars or Hungarians, Czechs (Bohemians), Germans, Slavs, and Poles, with a sprinkling of Croats, Italians, Roumanians, and other minor subjects, each with its religious bias, Roman Catholic, Old Catholic, Greek-Oriental, Lutheran, Moravian, Gregorian-Armenian, and Jew. The scuffling of this heterogeneous mass in the Lower House of the Reichsrath has of late made parliamentary government in the dual Empire a mockery, and converted the legislative chamber into a cauldron of seething passions. The recent sessions of the House have been marked by scenes of almost incredible party hostility and outrage, and the corresponding temper in the country has been such that revolution would seem to impend and cause the whole patchwork fabric of Empire to fall to pieces.

Since the formation, in 1867, of the dual Empire, after the war with Prussia, Austro-Hungary has had within her all the elements of possible disintegration, though she has managed, partly by the skilful diplomacy of Francis Joseph, to keep them hitherto from breaking violently out. That the machinery has so far run without undue friction is explained by the concession, under the Constitution, of practical home-rule to Hungary, the eastern or, as it is called, Transleithan, division of the monarchy. The Austrian Emperor is also King of Hungary, and the Kingdom has its own Reichstag at Budapest, and, though united politically with Austria under one crown, retains its own local independence. This concession was rendered necessary, owing to the difference in the language of the two peoples, as well as from a desire to gratify Hungarian aspirations. What Hungary has gained in the alliance, Bohemia, under the agitations of the young Czech party, seeks for herself and Moravia, impelled also in the desire for autonomy by antagonism to the German element in the Province. It is these national aspirations, together with the agitations that have arisen from race prejudices, opposition on the part of German Liberals to reforms in the central government, and complications occurring in respect to the financial contribution of Hungary to the expenses of the Empire, that, all told, have stirred up strife in the Vienna legislature and set orderly and harmonious government at defiance. How the difficulties of the complex situation will be met, whether by timely concession to the malcontents, or by the assumption of autocratic powers by the Emperor and the suppression of Parliament, we shall ere long, no doubt, know.

* * *

THE LATE GEORGE M. PULLMAN It would be remiss in us to omit to chronicle in these pages the recent death of Mr. G. M. Pullman, of Chicago, one of the notable captains of industry of our time. A generation has passed away since he organized his great enterprise, the Palace-Car Company, and founded at Pullman, with a philanthropy that did him infinite credit, a model city of workshops, with resorts for recreation and amusement and beautiful artisans' homes. This New World "Saltaire" in the suburbs of Chicago, though it has had its vicissitudes, has, in both an economical and moral sense, amply justified the munificent forethought and large-mindedness of its founder; and in this, and in other respects, Mr. Pullman's enterprise may well prompt other large and humane capitalists to follow his noble example. The Palace Car system, was, at its inception a bold, even an audacious, undertaking; yet how successful it has become, and with what alleviation of the discomforts and weariness of travel over vistas of space, we all know and are fain heartily to acknowledge. The system has, as we know, revolutionized railway travel and become an indispensable adjunct to transportation. The growth of the company, with a capital to-day of $36,000,000, is an index of its usefulness and of Mr. Pullman's skilled and shrewd management. May Charon's barque have been as luxurious and cosy as one of his own Palace Car sleepers in its ferriage of his remains over the Styx!

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CHRISTMAS, THE CHRISTIAN CHURCHES AND THE MISSIONS

With the hastening close of the year, comes again the season of Thanksgiving and Christmas — the period of family reunions and social rejoicings. The latter festival, throughout the civilized world at least, brings with it to all reflecting minds the great, central event of history which the season commemorates. To many, however, the significance of the season, which the Church has adopted as that of the birth of Christ, is largely lost sight of in the observances and customs we keep up, and which have come down to us from early heathen days, though they have subsequently become hallowed by time and kindly associations in their transmission from our Saxon forefathers. As an ecclesiastical festival, Christmas, nevertheless, sees myriads of devout worshippers in the Churches, testifying, despite the unbelief of the age, to the unique character of the Founder of Christianity, and to the power, over reason and conscience alike, of His Gospel. With such, as human society is held by them to be a Divine institution, the impulse at the season of Christmas is very active to feel sympathy for and to extend help to the needy and distressed among their fellowmen. This is one of the many flowering virtues which we owe to the benign influence of Christianity, and leads those who exemplify and practice the virtue to recognize the great brotherhood of the human family and to think more of what unites than of what divides men. It is this human-caring aspect of Christianity that has always won benighted races when the Gospel is first brought to their knowledge, and even the sceptic is impressed by it as the kernel of practical religion.

In the sufficingness for all human need, Christianity is to-day more effectively than ever appealing to the unrest and weakness of man, and, with the fast-surrendering opposition to it, the fact, together with the permanent interest that religion has for the race, is one of the chief testimonies to its power. Without belief in Christ and His kingdom, and in the government of a personal God, life would be a blank, indeed, for negation has no comfort for the spirit of man; and, without Revelation, the whence and whither of life, and of the worlds with it, would be an inexplicable and mind-burdening puzzle. No purely natural religion, still less a boastful science, can help us to read these riddles understandingly, or even aid us aright in guiding our life and ruling our conduct. It is the consciousness of this, that, in an age like ours, gives value to the sphere and work of the church, as the disseminator of revealed truth and the inculcator of righteousness. We may not all, we certainly do not all, have the same conception of the value of the Christian church, or regard with like respect the clerical character. Ecclesiasticism, it is deemed by many, rather repels than attracts to the acceptance of truth, places intellectual minds irksomely under the fetters of an authoritative creed, and hinders free inquiry. This has even been the experience of its own ministers. But modern modes of thought are having their influence in broadening the church and making less dogmatic and exacting its authority, as they are also liberalizing theology and detaching from the Spirit of the Middle Ages the theologians. The gain to Christianity in this cannot be little, while it will vastly increase its general acceptance.

To the many existing and remarkable proofs of the influence of Christianity, another has just been added by Mr. Julian Hawthorne, in his account of the great famine in India, and the Christianization of its subject races through the agency of the Churches' missions. Speaking of the paralysis of caste and the fetters of bigotry, which delay civilization and obscure enlightenment, Mr. Hawthorne affirms that only through Christianity can India be lifted out of misery. The beneficent result in the East of this contact of civilization with barbarism is even more strikingly illustrated by the facts elicited in the recent work which Dr. James S. Dennis of New York has just published on "Christian Missions and Social Progress." To the seekers for truth among un-Christian, and even anti-Christian, sociological thinkers, this book, which we hope to review in SELF CULTURE next month, will be found exceedingly helpful and instructive. The work, besides its other and varied interest, shows the magnitude of the sphere for the operative influences of Christianity, and is, in itself, an emphatic as well as a weighty tribute to its worth.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Sunday, October 10.—Secretary Long will ask an appropriation for the navy for the next fiscal year of $31,991,727....Secretary Gage, Senator Mason, Mayor Carter H. Harrison, and others, made speeches at the celebration of Illinois and Chicago Day at the Tennessee centennial exposition....The sixth anniversary of the death of Charles Stewart Parnell was the occasion of a demonstration at Dublin; 5,000 nationalists marched to his grave and heaped it high with flowers.

Monday, October 11.—The monetary commission met in Washington; about 100 communications on the general subject of currency reform have so far been received....It is reported that Miss Cisneros, who escaped from a jail in Cuba, will go to Washington and enter the convent at Georgetown; Miss Cisneros, being a political refugee, cannot be surrendered under the law....The executive committee of the federated trades in Great Britain has decided to call out all its members in sympathy with the engineers; it is estimated that 400,000 men will then be out of work....The Irish independent league, organized by John Redmond, M. P., the Parnellite leader, opened its first convention in Dublin; there were 800 delegates; among the resolutions adopted was one reaffirming that the Irish Question can only be settled by the concession of national self-government....General Weyler has issued an amnesty decree, which includes nearly all the deported Cubans.

Tuesday, October 12.—Secretary Sherman has invited Great Britain to take part in a seal conference in which Russia and Japan will not be represented....The Turkish government has sent to the Powers a circular proposing the disarmament of both Christians and Mussulmans in Crete, the appointment of a governor by the sultan, and the formation of a gendarmerie corps....The troops forming the Mohmand punitive expedition have destroyed twenty-six fortified villages, and have killed many of the insurgent natives.

Wednesday, October 13.—Associate Justice Field, of the United States supreme court, will soon retire and be succeeded, it is said, by Attorney-General McKenna .. Señorita Evangelina Cossio y Cisneros, who escaped a week ago from a Spanish jail in Havana, was brought safely to New York....Señor Moret, the Spanish minister of the colonies, will offer the chief political and administrative posts in Cuba to Cubans. ....Leading men of London are signing a letter objecting to action by the British government in the direction of bimetallism... An Abyssinian army has been annihilated by Somalis.... The serious illness of Mme. Adelina Patti, the singer, is announced.

Thursday, October 14.—The resignation of Justice Stephen J. Field, of the United States supreme court has been accepted by President McKinley, to take effect on December 1....The Russian delegates to the seal conference are represented as favoring the most stringent regulations for the protection of the animals.... A banquet was given in Paris to President Faure in commemoration of his visit to Russia.... Captain-General Weyler has granted amnesty to forty-six more Cuban political prisoners.... It is reported that a filibustering expedition has been landed in the province of Santa Clara, Cuba, and joined the insurgents....Reinforcements for the army in Cuba are being hurried forward from Spain.

Friday, October 15.—The warship *Yantic*, against which there have been many protests in the Canadian press, sailed from Boston for Detroit, to be used as the training ship of the Michigan naval reserve ...The British government intimated to Ambassador Hay that it would take part in a sealing conference in Washington, in which Japan and Russia would not participate... The London "Globe" reiterates that the Government may be depended upon to maintain the gold standard inviolate.

Saturday, October 16.—There were fewer new cases of yellow fever, and only one death from it in New Orleans... The British cabinet met; no decision as to the answer to be given to the American monetary commissioners was reached, but the answer, it is believed, will be unfavorable to the proposals of France and America ...The German government is collecting statistics with a view to entering into a reciprocity arrangement with the U. ited States ....General Azcarraga, former prem·er of Spain, reiterates that the Spanish ministry will receive the support of the Conservative majorities of the chambers.

Sunday, October 17.—Charles A. Dana, editor of the New York "Sun," died at his home, in Glencove, Long Island, aged 78....The town of Windsor, the seat of Hants County, Nova Scotia, thirty-five miles from Halifax, was destroyed by fire; few buildings in the town were left standing and 3,000 people are homeless. The losses are roughly estimated at $3,000,000.... Negotiations between the Spanish government and the chiefs of the Cuban autonomist party have not produced the desired result.

Monday, October 18.—The secretary of the navy has ordered the *Detroit* to proceed at once to Livingston, on the gulf coast of Guatemala, to protect American interests ...A German newspaper quotes Prince Bismarck as saying that the Monroe Doctrine is "uncommon insolence towards the rest of the world, and does violence to the other American and European states with American interests."....It is believed that 150 persons perished in the wreck of the steamer *Triton* off Cuba.

Tuesday, October 19.—Receipts from customs were $681,423, the largest for one day since the new tariff law went into effect... At the meeting of the cabinet it was decided that each department should adopt regulations to carry out the civil-service order recently promulgated by the President... George M. Pullman, president of the Pullman Palace Car Company, died suddenly at his home in Chicago .. A new movement has been started in London opposing the bimetallic league, and asking a new ratio of 1 to 22, or 16 pence per rupee....It is reported that negotiations for an alliance are in progress between the governments of Spain and Portugal.

Wednesday, October 20.—Secretary of War Alger issued an order establishing a military

reservation on St. Michael Island, Alaska.... Secretary of the Navy Long will urge Congress to increase the personnel of the navy by 100 officers, 1,500 enlisted men, and 500 apprentices. ....The Czar of Russia visited Emperor William at Wiesbaden....The defense of the colonies is reported to be receiving unusual attention from the British government in connection with the increase in the British army ...The tribesmen who had re-occupied the heights west of Chagru were dislodged by the British forces after a hard fight; the British losses were heavy. ....Lord Rosebery, the former premier and leader of the Liberal party in Great Britain, is visiting Prince Bismarck.

Thursday, October 21.—President McKinley appointed W. K. Van Reypen surgeon-general of the navy, to succeed the late Newton L. Bates. ....A mass meeting of Republicans to indorse Seth Low was held at Carnegie Hall; speeches were made by Mayor Strong, Mr. Low, Joseph H. Choate, Elihu Root and Wager Swayne.... The centennial of the launching of the frigate *Constitution* was publicly celebrated in Boston. ....The Marquis of Salisbury says, in reference to the reopening of the Indian mints: "The government of India points out that they can hardly be expected to give up a policy which for four years they have been endeavoring to make effective, in the absence of substantial security that the system to be substituted for it is practically certain to be stable"....The anniversary of the battle of Trafalgar was celebrated in London more generally than usual.

Friday, October 22.—Ex-President Grover Cleveland, in an oration at the commemoration day exercises of Princeton University, referred forcibly to the dangers of blind partisanship in political affairs....In his annual report, General Miles, commanding the army, recommends that congress authorize two more regiments of artillery and five of infantry... The ordnance bureau has completed 536 big guns for the navy and has 169 in process of manufacture....The National Bank of Asheville, N. C., suspended payment....Dr. Justin Winsor, librarian of Harvard University, died at Cambridge, Mass. ....The British columns under Generals Biggs and Lockhart, operating against the insurgents on the Indian northwest frontier, have joined forces near Kharappa, where the insurgents are massed; large drafts of soldiers have been ordered to be got ready to reinforce the British troops now in India.

Saturday, October 23.—The sealing conference, with delegates from the United States, Russia, and Japan present, met and organized in Washington....The monetary commission will not recommend that congress undertake any radical changes in the currency system such as would produce fluctuations in prices or uncertainties as to the future....Pierre Lorillard and Marshall Field declared in interviews abroad that European capitalists are still too timid to invest in America....A new cabinet for Servia has been formed under the premiership of Dr. Wladan Georgevitch, until recently Servian minister at Constantinople.

Sunday, October 24.—The total cost of maintaining the navy during the past fiscal year was $17,514,213....Nineteen persons were killed by the falling of a New York Central railroad train into the Hudson river, near Garrison's, N. Y. ....A British officer says that the territory of Borguin, Africa, held by the French, belongs indisputably to Great Britain; a collision between the rival nations is not improbable.... The rebel tribesmen in India are massing at Sempagha Pass and more serious fighting is expected.

Monday, October 25.—Attorney-General McKenna has informed the Union Pacific reorganization committee that he will ask for a postponement of the sale of the road until December 15....The death list of the railroad wreck at Garrison's remains nineteen ...The court of appeals declared that Seth Low's nomination for mayor by the Citizens' Union was valid ...The second trial of Luetgert, for murdering his wife, may begin immediately....Steps were taken by the United States embassy in Paris to secure the extradition of William R. Foster, who, in 1888, stole $193,000 from the gratuity fund of the New York produce exchange....General Weyler was ordered to remain in Cuba until the arrival of Marshal Blanco, his successor.

Tuesday, October 26.—The notice of motion to postpone the sale of the Union Pacific railroad has been withdrawn, the Government having accepted the new proposition of the reorganization committee to increase its bid to an amount equalling the full claim of the United States against the Union Pacific main line, which is over $58,000,000....The Conservatives in Havana have decided to energetically oppose autonomy and the policy of the Sagasta cabinet in that direction....The world's W. C. T. U., which has been meeting at Toronto, Ontario, adjourned; Miss Frances E. Willard was reëlected president.

Wednesday, October 27.—Edison's new method of extracting iron from low-grade ores is now in successful operation at Dover, New Jersey; the ore is pulverized and passed close to electro-magnets, which deflect the iron from the non-metallic matter....Paul Dana has been elected editor of the New York "Sun," to succeed his father, the late Charles A. Dana... The Mazozais protest against the occupation of the Khyber pass, Samana range, and Swat valley by the British forces, and declare their intention of opposing the British advance....In the Hungarian parliament Herr Francis Kossuth, son of the Hungarian patriot, urged the government to "take advantage of Austrian chaos to try for Hungary's freedom."

Thursday, October 28.—The Russian, Japanese, and American delegates to the international seal conference have agreed upon a plan for the protection of seals, which provides for the limitation or entire suspension of pelagic sealing....President McKinley regards Spain's reply to the Woodford note as conciliatory ... The grand jury at Wilkesbarre, Pa., indicted Sheriff Martin and his deputies for shooting down the strikers at Lattimer....A son was born to ex-President and Mrs. Grover Cleveland at their home in Princeton, N. J. .. The commission appointed to discuss the territorial dispute in West Africa between France and Great Britain began their sessions.. Baron Von Bulow, recently German ambassador at Rome, has been appointed minister for foreign affairs.

Friday, October 29.—The President has appointed Gen. James Longstreet, of Georgia, commissioner of railroads, in place of Gen. Wade Hampton, resigned....President McKinley issued a proclamation designating November 25 as Thanksgiving day....Henry George, the candidate of the Democracy of Thomas Jefferson for mayor, was stricken with apoplexy at his rooms in the Union Square hotel, dying about 5 o'clock... The British forces under General Sir William Lockart captured Sempagha pass, in India.

Saturday, October 30.—President McKinley arrived in Cincinnati; he spoke at a reception given by the chamber of commerce in the afternoon, and at a dinner given by the Commercial club in the evening....Herman Liebes, of London, made a statement on the sealing question, in answer to Joseph Chamberlain....The cruiser *Baltimore* sailed from San Francisco for Honolulu....General Blanco arrived in Havana and relieved the retiring governor-general, Weyler.

Sunday, October 31.—At the close of business on Saturday, the last business day of the month, the gold reserve in the United States treasury amounted to $153,551,811, which is by a few thousand dollars the highest point recorded since November, 1890....Henry George, son, and successor of the late Henry George, issued a statement, pledging himself, if elected to the mayoralty of Greater New York to fulfill every condition and promise made by his father....The British forces on the Afghan frontier captured Ardangha Pass, meeting with slight resistance; the Ameer of Afghanistan has furnished proof of his friendship for the British ....The government of Norway is about to send out an expedition to search for Herr Andrée, the North Pole aeronaut.

Monday, November 1.—The Union Pacific railroad was sold in Omaha, Nebraska, to the reorganization committee for $57,564,932.76.... The comparative statement of the receipts and expenditures of the United States shows that the total receipts for the month of October were $24,391,415 and the expenditures $33,701,512, making the excess of expenditures over receipts for the month $9,310,097 and for the four months of the present fiscal year $38,009,101.... A dispatch from Paris says that a British syndicate has obtained sole control of the trade of the Soudan in exchange for the payment of an annuity to the Egyptian government and the defrayal of the expenses of military occupation.

Tuesday, November 2.—It is reported from Washington that the Carnegie and Bethlehem iron companies have purchased the right to use the Krupp process in making armor plates; this would prevent the Government using this process in its own armor plate factory if it should establish one....General Blanco thinks that the reforms for Cuba, which he is authorized to put in force, will be all that the autonomists could desire; he thinks the rebels will alter their attitude toward reform....The elections in Newfoundland resulted in a sweeping victory for the opposition, led by Sir James Winter.

Wednesday, November 3.—The enemies of the civil-service system are polling the Republican members of the house of representatives with a view to making a fight for its repeal.... Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador, has been instructed to ascertain the views of the Government of the United States in regard to a reciprocity treaty with the West Indies.... Princess Kianlani of Hawaii sailed from San Francisco for Honolulu....The Spanish premier and the minister of war are considering the adoption of repressive measures against the Carlists....Joseph Chamberlain was installed as lord rector of the Glasgow university.

Thursday, November 4.—The New York chamber of commerce adopted resolutions suggesting to the Federal Government the advisability of increasing the army for the defense of cities on the sea-board....A line of first-class steamships, to run to the Klondike, has been organized in Philadelphia, with Charles H. Cramp, the shipbuilder, as president....It was announced in Madrid that the Spanish cabinet has decided to say to the United States Government that Spain will do what she deems fit concerning the granting of autonomy to Cuba.

Friday, November 5.—The State department has intimated that it would view with favor negotiations for reciprocity between Canada and the United States....United States Consul-General Lee returned to Washington to receive instructions before his departure for Havana ....Senator Wolcott and General Charles J. Paine, members of the monetary commission, arrived at New York on the steamer *Campania* ....An attempt was made to assassinate President Moraes, of Brazil....It is said the Afridis have made a fresh appeal to the Ameer of Afghanistan for assistance before making submission to the British.

Saturday, November 6.—Delegates to the international seal conference, representing Russia, Japan, and the United States, signed a treaty for the protection of seals....A delegation of Hawaiians will shortly arrive in Washington to protest against the annexation of the islands by the United States....The Spanish cabinet council has approved the proposal of political amnesty for Cuba and the Philippine Islands.

Sunday, November 7.—It is said that the administration will give a fair trial to General Blanco's policy before taking any further action on the Cuban question....A vein of Bessemer iron ore 77 feet deep and 40 feet wide has been discovered on the Michigamme river, on the Menomonee range, Michigan....Nineteen persons were drowned from the steamer *Idaho*, which sank in Lake Erie....The Orakzais are treating with the British for peace; the Afridis have not yet given any sign of yielding.

Monday, November 8.—Premier Laurier and Minister Davies, of the Canadian government, are on their way to Washington, prepared to negotiate for a settlement of all the questions in dispute between the United States and the Dominion....The president is said to desire a speedy ratification of the Hawaiian annexation treaty, in view of a possible crisis in Cuban affairs....Dr. W. Godfrey Hunter, of Kentucky, was appointed minister to Guatemala and Honduras....Marshal Blanco issued an edict granting full pardon to all Cuban rebels who have been imprisoned for rebellion.

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INQUIRIES ANSWERED

I JUDGE from your reply to my previous communication that you do not consider that there is antagonism between Christianity and Evolution. I have always supposed that I was fairly familiar with the main tenets and teachings of Christianity; but if those teachings are not directly opposed to those of Evolution, then I am all at sea, and I also venture to assert that I am not alone in that position.

Why, if there is nothing anti-Christian in Evolution, did church dignitaries from the highest to the lowest, and from every part of Christendom, vie with each other in heaping vitriolic phrases upon those who first brought Evolution into prominence? Why did the Christian pulpit and press pour their vials of calumny on the heads of those who propounded or held views favorable to Evolution? Why have professors been driven from their chairs for accepting the theory of Evolution? Why did many of the presidents of our colleges denounce Evolution in the most scathing terms? Why have hundreds of volumes been published under the auspices of the Christian church, endeavoring and claiming to prove that Evolution was false in every particular? These and many more similar questions that arise in my mind show the attitude of Christians towards Evolution in the past; and if at the present time their views are being changed it is not because of any love they bear Evolution, but, rather, because the better educated Christians have no longer the hardihood to deny and denounce facts.

In my last letter I asked the question, Does a Christian Evolutionist believe in the miraculous conception of Christ? Can a person who rejects that story be justly designated a Christian? I repeat this question because it seems to me that you ignored it, and as I believe an Evolutionist must reject the miraculous conception of Christ.

We are sorry to find you dissatisfied with the reply (published in the September number of SELF CULTURE) to the inquiry what was meant by the term "Christian Evolutionist." We nevertheless think that the matter was clearly elucidated, though it did not cover all the points of your letter, some of which, in our opinion, it were profitless to discuss, and therefore it was useless to take space in the magazine to set them forth. You propound now a new question, not the one you previously put to us, though an expansion of it, viz., "If there is nothing anti-Christian in Evolution, why was it denounced so bitterly by Christian people?" That the hypothesis of Evolution when first given to the world in what is termed "Darwinism," was derided as atheistic and deemed destructive of Christian Revelation, is undoubtedly true; but this arose chiefly as the result of two things — (1) the lack of an intelligent understanding of the theory and of its limitations, and (2) a natural antagonism to a doctrine that seemed at first blush wholly destructive of old and cherished religious beliefs, and which was exultantly taken up and proclaimed as a new gospel by materialists, sceptics, and the opponents of Christianity.

Since then, ecclesiastical censure has not only abated, but, under a fuller knowledge of Mr. Darwin's remarkable discovery, and the limits of its application to the development and transmutation, rather than to the origins of species, has given place to an attitude of acceptance and approval. Evolution, it was seen, was not destructive of faith, or antagonistic to the theological idea of creation, where reasonably propounded. It undoubtedly forced the Church to take a less literal, and a more comprehensive, view of the cosmogony, as set forth in the Book of Genesis; but when this was done, and when scientific men themselves admitted the limit to be placed on the sphere and operations of organic Evolution, devout minds again breathed freely, and saw in the theory only that which gave a wider and nobler view of the Creator's work. This altered view of Evolution was the more readily reached with the aid of those whom we termed "Christian Evolutionists," that is, the scientists of note who accepted Evolution on the evidence presented, endorsed by their own investigation and research, and who, as we have said, see nothing in the hypothesis to undermine or even lessen their faith in Revelation. The Bible, they well know, is not a scientific manual; but, considering its source and history, it is obviously more fitted to deal with the origin of things and with higher matters than are given to the finite mind to know.

There are many mysteries in this world, to which Science and even Revelation furnish no key. No scientist has yet divined what life is and how it has originated; we can trace its transmission, but cannot speak with pre-

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cision of its original forms; nor is there evidence of a conclusive kind tracing in primitive man the descent or ascent of the human race, as some hold, from the anthropoid ape. No one has seen one species change into another. Wallace, the co-worker with Darwin, maintains that man in his higher mental and moral faculties must have had another origin than Evolution. In this diversity of opinion among scientists, there is no room for dogmatism, nor is there evidence to overthrow Revelation on any material point. In the sphere of the Supernatural we are all gropers and cannot draw aside the curtain of the Infinite. The Miraculous Conception belongs to the domain of mystery, and only by faith can we apprehend it as a theological doctrine. While the believer accepts it, the doubter cannot disprove it.

We may add that we have given more than usual space to our correspondent's letter than its polemical character would justify. We do so, however, for the reason that our good faith, as well as the views we hold on the question discussed, seemed to be unnecessarily impeached. Evolution is a large question, and the theories concerning it advanced by those, like ourselves, who believe in it are varied and sometimes conflicting. As it seems to us, there is sufficient in the subject to interest thoughtful inquirers without importing into it any attack upon Christianity or the religious consciousness of the race, or going outside the domain of physical phenomena, which Darwin himself was careful to avoid. We may surely study Evolution without stopping to inquire (certainly a needless question now) why the Christian Church at times has seemed antagonistic to the march of science, or seeing in the theory (which we do not see), one that accounts for everything, including the origin of man's spiritual and intellectual nature. ED. S. C.

Will SELF CULTURE kindly inform me where and in whose custody is the original copy of the Declaration of Independence? I understand that it is in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, but is now so time-worn that it is not exposed to view or shown to visitors. Pray state if this is correct.

1. The original "Declaration of Independence" is the property of the Government and is kept in the Department of State at Washington.

2. It is in a fair condition of preservation, considering its age. The paper is yellow and time-worn, and some few of the lines cannot be read except with powerful glasses. The signatures are all easily distinguishable.

3. It is kept under lock and key in a sealed case in the Bureau of Rolls and Library.

4. The Secretary of State is the nominal custodian, but it is actually in the custody of the Chief of the Bureau of Rolls and Library, Andrew H. Allen.

I write for some information on the Dark Ages, or suggestion where the subject is treated of in the Encyclopædia Britannica, or elsewhere.

The Dark Ages, or, as more usually referred to in history, the Middle Ages, you will find treated of in the Encyclopædia Britannica, in the article "The Renaissance;" see, also, article on Scholasticism; but especially the article on "The Middle Ages," in SELF CULTURE for November, 1896 (Vol. IV, page 153). If you have not the latter, which you will find most useful for your purpose, we can send it to you (price 20c). Consult, also, Hallam's "View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages."

The term, the Dark Ages, is a somewhat indefinite one, but it nearly coincides in time with what the historians call the Middle Ages. It refers to the period of intellectual darkness from the decline of classical learning, after the fall of the Roman Empire and the establishment of the barbarians in Europe, in the fifth century, till the Renaissance, or revival of letters, in the fifteenth century.

Oblige by informing me what language is usually spoken at the chief courts of Europe when audiences are given to people of different nationalities. Please also state what is known of the recent treaty or bond between Russia and France.

The language spoken at European courts and in diplomatic circles where personages of different nationalities are present, is usually French. The Czar, in replying to President Faure, would therefore be almost certain to use the French tongue.

It is not easy, as yet, to say what is the character or scope of the relations that have been recently established between Russia and France. They are spoken of as an "alliance;" but Russia is too guarded and too conservative of her own interests to commit herself publicly to anything more than a friendly amity, in her relations with the governments of other nations.

Some time ago a quotation was given at a literary meeting and we all failed to find the author of it, nor has any one of us succeeded since in discovering its source. We therefore appeal to SELF

CULTURE to be enlightened. The lines, if I correctly quote them, ran thus: —

"He is not worthy of the honey-comb
Who shuns the hives because the bees have stings."

The source of the two lines you submit to us is Shakespeare. They appear in "Locrine" (Hubba), Act III., Sc. II., a play attributed to Shakespeare, and issued in the early (1664) edition of the poet's works. The play does not usually appear in modern editions of Shakespeare's writings. "Locrine" was one of the early mythical kings of Britain. Your quotation of the lines is correct.

In conversation recently with student acquaintances, a dispute arose as to the proper color of the seal and ribbon to be attached to the diplomas representing the various literary and scientific degrees granted by American colleges. Will you please state what color is proper for the degrees B.A., A.M., Ph.D., B.Sc., LL.D., D.D., M.D., and B.L.?

We think your acquaintances have confused the idea of the colors of the college caps and gowns, with the colors of the ribbon and seal of the diplomas. The colors designating the degrees are not used at the present time in the ribbon which is tied around the diploma, nor is the color shown in the seal. The question of the uniform adoption, by the chief American universities and colleges, of a distinctive code of colors and type of caps and gowns for the learned degrees, has been under consideration for some time by an intercollegiate committee, called the Intercollegiate Commission on Academic Costume. This movement was initiated by the Columbia and Princeton Universities and has been followed by Yale and other institutions. The purpose is to secure a uniform practice among the American universities and colleges, whereby the colors and pattern of the cap and gown and hood shall indicate not only the degree of the wearer and the faculty under which it was obtained, but also the institution by which the degree was conferred. A statute was drafted, and since May, 1895, has been adopted by a league of Eastern Colleges and may be followed by any of the chief collegiate institutions of the country.

The statute classifies the types of gowns, and the arrangement of pattern and coloring, so as to make the hood a plain badge of the degree, be it Bachelor, Master, or Doctor; or the department of learning, be it Arts, Philosophy, Law, Theology or other; of the institution granting the degree or with which the holder was then connected. The department or faculty of learning is shown by a trimming of color around the exterior edge of the hood, based somewhat on historic or emblematic grounds, as follows: Arts and Letters — white; Theology — scarlet; Law — purple; Philosophy — blue; Science — gold yellow; Fine Arts — brown; Music — pink; Medicine — green. The institution is shown by the color or colors of the lining. The Oxford cap is worn for all the degrees, but the Doctorate is entitled to a tassel of gold, and the cap of the Doctor alone may be of velvet.

The American Intercollegiate System is already so well established by the official action of Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, the University of Pennsylvania and the University of the City of New York, Lafayette, the Catholic University of America and others, that the holder of a degree from any institution whose colors are well settled is warranted in wearing a hood made according to it, as no other code is likely to be adopted by any institution that has so far taken action.

The colors adopted by the institutions, and used in athletic games, college fraternities, ceremonial or ordinary wear, are of minor importance to the official colors designating the degrees. The code of colors adopted by the various universities of the United States may be found in the College Year-book, kept in most reference libraries. Any information concerning colors, their use in colleges or degrees either of this country or Great Britain, may be learned by addressing a letter of inquiry to Cotrell and Leonard, 472–474 Broadway, Albany, New York. This firm, who issue a printed statement giving all particulars, are the official Cap and Gown makers for American colleges.

The uniform code is incomparably beyond the arbitrary codes of the British Universities, and of the earlier codes in this country, many of which it has already superseded by official enactment. It is difficult, as we know, for many an English University man to read the hoods of his own *alma mater*, to say nothing of those of the other universities of the British Isles or Colonies. Our system known for one institution is known for all, except as to the special college colors shown.

A question has arisen in my mind as to the use of the apostrophe in the following sentences, and being a member of the Home University League, I submit them to you for your opinion:

Mr. Watkins sells boys shoes.
Mr. Watkins sells boy's shoes.
Mr. Eckles has had years experience.
Mr. Eckles has had years' experience.

Please advise me which one of the two sentences is correct.

"Mr. Watkins sells boys' shoes" is correct — not as you have it in either form. Your other examples are faulty, the first being wrong, and the second inelegant. You can say or write "Mr. Eckles has had years *of* experience," but if you omit the "of" the number of years should be given, if possible — thus "Mr. Eckles has had many years' experience," or has had several or a few years' experience, as the case may be. The preferable form is "years *of* experience," but, as we have said, if "of" is omitted, you must use the possessive, and in the plural it of course follows the "s." An error to be avoided is in employing both "of" and the possessive, as in the phrase — "that of other men's." In compound nouns, the sign of the possessive is added at the end of the whole compound, of whatever kind it may be: thus, "at my Cousin John Smith's." Even when nouns are connected by *and* or *or*, the possessive sign is added only to the last of them, when they form a compound notion: thus, "Paul and Priscilla's book;" "After a fortnight or three weeks' possession;" "In wonder-works of God and Nature's hand."

In your next issue will you kindly inform me which is right, in the following advertisement: "For Sale, a most beautiful Lady's Empire pleated cape," or, "a most beautiful Ladies' Empire pleated cape."

Unquestionably "Lady's" is correct in the sentence forwarded. This is equivalent to saying that a most beautiful Empire pleated cape, such as is worn by, or intended for use, by a lady — is for sale. It is specially correct to use the form "Lady's" when the reference is to a single garment; if the advertisement offered several most beautiful capes, then the word Ladies' would be in place. You would not say *a* most stylish *men's* coat, nor *several* stylish *man's* coats. It should be noted, however, that there is a "beautiful" ambiguity in the use of the epithet "beautiful," since it may apply to the lady rather than "to the pleated cape."

Can you give any explanation, aside from the usual one that we live too fast, for the decreasing limit of human life in most civilized countries?

Your inference, we think, is wrong as to the shortening of human life. Under the improved sanitary conditions of the past twenty-five years, there are conclusive evidences that the average duration of life is extending. The fever and fret which accompany the race for wealth in these times are obviously not favorable to length of days; but against this is to be put not only the better sanitary conditions under which most of us live now, but the improved medical science available in disorders and ailments, and a more adequate knowledge of the laws that govern health. It may be said that accidents are more rife than formerly, which doubtless is true, and that few of the race attain the hundredth year. But the average of healthy life is unquestionably extending, and if we did not drain vitality so recklessly by our feverish business methods, there is no reason why the bulk of the race should not die octo- or even nonogenarians.

Please tell me where and how the superstition originated concerning the number "thirteen."

Thirteen has always been held to be an unlucky number, especially in the case of thirteen at table, when one of the diners, it was said, was sure to die within the year. The superstition is an ancient one, and widely prevalent. The belief probably grew out of the fact that Christ and His Apostles made a total of thirteen at the Last Supper, and gained additional strength and currency through the Norse story of Loki's banquet with the gods in Valhalla. Baldur was the thirteenth at the table, and had to die. There are streets in Paris and other French cities where houses are numbered 12 *bis*, 112 *bis*, etc., in lieu of 13 or 113. Even in America, many hotels have no room "13." The Turks have almost expunged the number 13 from their vocabulary. The Italians never used it in making up the numbers for their lotteries, and in one of their games the thirteenth card bears the figure of death. In almost all civilized countries may be found educated men and women who would rather die than sit thirteen at table. "The Parisian *pique-assiette*, who lives by dining in other people's houses, is often known as the *quatorzième*, it being the chief part of his business to make the fourteenth to the chance unlucky number." In New York, a club called the "Thirteenth Club" was started in 1884 for the express purpose of suppressing this superstition. The number of members always consists of some multiple of thirteen; they dine together on the thirteenth of every month, thirteen at a table, their dues are thirteen cents a month, and everything connected with the club is arranged as far as possible by thirteens. From year to year they are said to publish reports to show that individually and collectively they are as healthy, prosperous, and long-lived as are the members of any other club.

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Kindly tell me where, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, I can find anything on nature's pigment, Chlorophyll, that will explain the action of the sun and frost on plant life. What I desire to have is some brief explanation of why the leaves change their color in Autumn.

It is not due directly to the withdrawal of the sap from the stem, nor altogether to the blighting action of frost and cold, that the leaves of trees take on their beautiful colorings in Autumn. The peculiar green-colored substance (chlorophyll) which is lodged in the central cells of the leaves of trees and of plants and in the blades of grass, giving them their green color, is the true life-material of the plant, and the same has been found by naturalists to be the origin of all living matter in nature. Animals, including man and the plants themselves, are entirely built up of living jelly, which this green-stuff has manufactured under the influence of sunlight. (For an interesting explanation of this, see "The Story of Plants," by Grant Allen, D. Appleton & Co.'s Library of Useful Stories, N. Y. 1895.) The material which is such an important thing in the history of life, and which is called in science chlorophyll, is not a simple green pigment; in reality it consists of seven distinct substances or coloring matters, varying in color from blue to yellow and orange. Each of these substances varies in proportion in the chlorophyll of different plants; each has a different chemical reaction; each is differently affected by the action of light, and each gives a distinct spectra. (For a better understanding of this, see "The Color Sense," by Grant Allen, the above-quoted publishers.)

As suggested, it is the peculiar function of the leaves of trees to absorb carbonic acid gas, and to give off, as their contribution to the vitality of the world, the life-giving oxygen, which man and the animals around him require for life sustenance. It is at night that oxygen is largely absorbed by the green part of the leaves. When these are performing healthy functions, and are in the full vigor of spring and summer, the action of the sunlight causes them to part with their oxygen, which would otherwise act chemically on the coloring matter in the leaf. But as the leaves approach the season of their fall, the active functions of assimilation and exhalation become retarded; the oxygen absorbed at night is not fully given off during the daytime, and its retention in the cellular tissue causes, under the action of the sun's rays upon the seven distinct pigment substances contained in the chlorophyll, the often exquisite tintings of autumn leaves, and occasions their infinitely varied shades of color. How much these striking effects of color may be partly dependent upon chemical substances, other than oxygen, absorbed into the tissues of the leaf from the roots of the tree, towards the approach of Autumn, and how much is dependent upon the action of light upon all these substances, science has not yet been able accurately to determine. It is known that light has a much more decided action in the plant than in the animal world. The green color of leaves is wholly dependent on light, and although some flowers will become colored in the dark, others are decidedly affected by the absence of light, even when the foliage is fully exposed to it.

Looking at the numerous coloring matters developed in the tissues of plants, the sensitiveness of these pigments to the light, the changes they undergo during growth and development, and the facility with which new chemical combinations are affected by the physiological processes of plants as shown by the endless variety in the chemical constitution of vegetable products, though these inquiries are at present in their infancy, there is no difficulty in comprehending the general causes which aid in producing the colorings in plant world, or the extreme variety of these colorings. The exquisite shadings of autumn foliage present the result of nature's workings with the phenomenon of color in its most attractive form. Until the true laws of light and heat are better understood, it is impossible for scientists to give more accurate details concerning color. See Encyc. Brit., Vol. XIX., pages 48, 52, 57, 831; Vol. III., page 690; Vol. IV., page 87; Vol. XII., page 12. Also see Mr. Alfred Wallace's "Tropical Nature, the colors of plants and the origin of the color-sense."

What, pray, are the specific distinctions between the *Sturm-und-Drang* period and the Romantic school of German Literature, and wherein lay the influence of the former upon the latter?

The *Sturm-und-Drang Zeit*, or Storm-and-Stress period of German literature refers to what may be termed the second generation of German poets and writers, the most distinguished of which were Herder, Goethe, Stolberg, Voss, and Bürger. It was closely followed by the Romantic school; indeed the two flourished contemporaneously for a period of some fifty years. The translations of Shakespeare, Goethe's "Götz," and Schiller's "Robbers," called into being a dramatic literature, the chief characteristic of which was strength, that is primitively direct expressions of passion, unrefined by taste, culture, or even decency. It was the old pro-

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test against the so-called artificial order of society, to which Rousseau half a century before had given so powerful an utterance in France. The heroes of this style of literature were denominated *Kraftmänner*, literally Power-men. The writers were Chivalry play-wrights, and dealt in pessimistic lamentation, mysterious enthusiasm, frenzy and suicide; they recurred with fondness to the Feudal Ages, delineating many a battlemented castle, and swart buff-belted man-at-arms, and other bombastic persons; for in reflection, as in action, they studied to be strong, vehement, rapidly effective. Of battle-tumult, love-madness, heroism, and despair, there was no end, and great indeed was the woe and fury of these Power-men. Beauty to their mind seemed synonymous with strength. All passion was poetical, so it were but fierce enough. Their chief moral virtue was Pride; their beau ideal of manhood was some transcript of Milton's Devil. They raged with extreme animation against Fate in general, because it enthralled free virtue. They likewise were wont to indulge in reminiscences of old-German history, art and song. Götz von Berlichingen with the Iron Hand, alone, was the progenitor of an all but countless race of mailed knights, who to this day maintain old-German freedom and noble prowess on the stage. This history period was called the *Sturm-und-Drang Zeit*, and the contemporary writers, as well as those immediately following, could not escape receiving a reflex tinge from a school so aggressive and moreover so positive in its color as that of the Storm-and-Stress period.

The distinctive trait of resemblance between the two periods is that each draws largely upon the imagination. In the tales of romance, characters and scenes and motives are softened and mystified. There reigns a mysterious intensity, a strange intimacy, with nature. The reader feels as if he were in an enchanted forest, listening to the melodious rush of subterranean fountains; strange wonder-magic flowers gaze with many-colored eyes, invisible lips kiss his cheeks with delusive tenderness; silent birds sit rocking upon the boughs. Suddenly, soft music is heard, and then a beautiful maiden rushes past with waving plumes in her hat and a falcon upon her wrist. This is a gracious mediæval maiden, who hunts fabulous beasts in the magic forest which can be caught only by a pure virgin. This is from the fancy of Ludwig Tieck, who (with the Schlegels and Kleist) was the literary chieftain of the German Romantic school. Forest solitude, churchyards at midnight, ruins of convents and baronial castles, are the favorite haunts of the romantic writers. They were excessively fond of moonlight and literally flooded their tales with its soft, dim splendor. Love scenes are invariably enacted to the soft notes of the bugle or the distant horn. The writers of this period showed great preference for the Middle Ages and revived interest in mediæval history and literature; therefore the Middle Ages are to-day regarded as the most Romantic period of history. It is the writers of the German school who have the doubtful merit of having introduced all the sepulchral situations into literature, and the Romanticists of other lands — Walter Scott, in the British Isles; Victor Hugo in France; and Ingemann in Denmark, have enlarged the répertoire, until, at present, we are almost able to draw a distinct line between that order of natural phenomena and human emotions which is Romantic and that which is not.

This, in brief, is an indication of the distinctive "Sturm-und-Drang" period and the Romantic period (both of which properly belong to the same epoch), and we trust it may help you to understand the excellent article on the subject in the Encyc. Brit. under Romance Literature. (Germany, Vol. X., pp. 536, 540, 541 and 542.)

I am a constant reader of your instructive "magazine of knowledge," and desire to obtain, through its pages, some points for an essay on the subject: "What constitutes a Good Reader?"

It has been suggested by educators and teachers, in regard to the art of reading well, that one must possess the knowledge or avail themselves of the assistance of five works, besides one on Rhetoric, namely a work on *Calisthenics* or chest development; one on *Orthophony*, or voice training; one on *Elocution*, as a science; and one on *Gesture* or action. There are manuals issued for learning to read properly, which combine all the essential qualities of these books. Light exercise in calisthenics, which include a series of movements for the chest, shoulder, arm, hand, head, neck and trunk have been found to aid and improve the voice. A systematic training of the latter is a prime necessity for one desiring to become an accomplished reader. To attain the highest voice capacity calls for good health and assiduous practice. For practice, voice-culture requires a continued systematic exercise in respiration, intonation, and calisthenics. These exercises bring into action all of the muscles of the chest and throat, head and mouth. Exercises in breathing, by noting the number of seconds required to fill the lungs by slow inhalation, and to empty them by slow exhalation, together with exercises in intoning, noting

the number of seconds that a full, smooth tone can be produced, and how many syllables can be uttered without a fresh supply of breath, have been found very beneficial and healthful to the respiratory and vocal organs. These exercises give the power and ability to produce many words with a small supply of breath or voice material, thus enabling a reader to render long passages of composition smoothly and effectively — passages that would lose half their force by an interruption for breath. General directions for Respiration, Intonation, and Hygienic exercise may be found in any good manual for home or professional readers, such as H. L. D. Potter's "Manual of Reading" (price $1.00), New York: Harper and Brothers.

Good articulation is quite as necessary to the good reader as any of the qualities we have mentioned. The chief defects of articulation consist in a uniformly weak or thick utterance, lisping and stammering. Unless these defects are the result of malformation or accidental injury of the vocal organs, or are caused by ill health, they can be overcome if the voice cultivator has sufficient will-power and patience to practice properly such exercises as are arranged in Manuals for the cure of these defects.

Proper enunciation is another important point to be looked after by the good reader. Fixed habits of articulation or enunciation contracted by uncultivated associations and incompetent teachers are exceedingly difficult to correct. These faults, resulting from ignorance, or carelessness, can be remedied by constant attention to, and correction of, every error of the kind. After the articulation of single elements, and the enunciation of combined elements in whole syllables, the correct pronunciation of each word must be learned. Pronunciation, dependent as it is upon good usage, custom, or fashion, is subject to change from time to time. After these elementary rules of Orthoepy are mastered, the reader must turn his attention to the laws of Pitch, and Force, or Compass and volume of the voice.

The science of speech is the philosophy of the human voice — its relations, principles and laws. The art of speech is the use of these scientific facts. Science teaches us to know; art, how to do. Science is classified knowledge, art is the use of classified knowledge. The Delsarte system of Elocutionary Training contains some excellent suggestions for one wishing to become a good reader. See also Murdoch's and Russell's "Vocal Culture."

Will SELF CULTURE oblige a reading club by supplying some criticism on Shakespeare's character of Ophelia in "Hamlet?"

The character of Shakespeare's Ophelia resolves itself into the very elemental principles of womanhood. She has modest tenderness, grace and beauty. By grace we mean that inexpressible something within the soul which tends to the good, the beautiful, the true, and is the antipodes of the vulgar, the violent, and the false; that which we see diffused externally over the form and movements where there is perfect innocence and unconsciousness, as in children. These are the inherent qualities which God has put into every woman's soul; they may be, and often are, perverted by a bad education; they may be obscured by a harsh and evil destiny; they may be overpowered by the development of some particular mental power, or the predominence of some passion; but modesty, grace and tenderness, are never wholly crushed out of the woman's soul. These qualities, when expanded under genial influences, suffice to make a perfect and happy human creature, but when thrown alone amid harsh and adverse destinies, and amid the evils and corruptions of society, without energy to resist, or will to act, or strength to endure, the end must needs be desolation. Such is the character and fate of Ophelia, as portrayed by Shakespeare.

Ophelia is purely a character of passion and imagination. Shakespeare has painted female characters in which the intellect predominates, as in Portia, Beatrice, Rosalind; characters of the affections as Hermione, Desdemona, Imogen, and Cordelia; and in historical characters such as Cleopatra, Octavia, Constance, Margaret of Anjou, Lady Macbeth, and others; but Ophelia belongs, as we have said, with those in which passion and imagination give color and force to the feminine nature. Such are the portraitures of Juliet, Helena, Perdita, Viola, and Miranda. The latter, of all Shakespeare's characters, is perhaps the one which most resembles Ophelia. Ophelia is a being in whom all intellectual and moral energy is, in a manner, latent, if existing; in whom love is an unconscious impulse, and imagination lends the external charm and hue, not the internal power. Helena is the union of strength of passion with strength of character. This renders her fate less unhappy than that of Ophelia.

The situation of Ophelia in the drama is that of a young girl, who, at an early age, is brought from a life of privacy into the circle of a court — a court at once rude, magnificent and corrupt. She is placed immediately about the person of the queen, and is apparently her favorite at-

tendant. The father of Ophelia, the Lord Chamberlain Polonius — shrewd, wary, pompous and garrulous — had kept his only daughter, as far as possible, from every taint of that world he knew so well. When her father and brother find it necessary to warn her simplicity, give her lessons of worldly wisdom, and instruct her "to be scanter of her maiden presence," for that Hamlet's vows of love "but breathe like sanctified and pious bonds, the better to beguile," it is felt at once that the warning comes too late; for from the moment she appears in the drama, amid the dark conflict of crime and vengeance and supernatural terrors, one knows what must be her destiny. It is the helplessness of Ophelia, arising merely from her innocence, and pictured guilelessness without any indication of weakness which melts one with such profound pity. She is so young that she is not aware of the nature of her own feelings; they are prematurely developed in their full force before she has strength to bear them, and love and grief together rend and shatter the frail texture of her mind and body. Besides the intrinsic loveliness, the character of Ophelia has a relative beauty and delicacy, when considered in relation to that of Hamlet, which is the delineation of a man of genius in contest with the powers of the world. The weakness of volition, the instability of purpose, the contemplative sensibility, the subtlety of thought, always shrinking from action, and always occupied in "thinking too precisely on the event," united to immense intellectual power, render Hamlet unspeakably interesting; and yet it has been questioned whether any other of the female characters of Shakespeare's creation who would have been better capable of understanding and appreciating such a man, would have passionately loved him.

Consider for a moment the other female characters in Shakespeare's plays in connection with Hamlet. The gentle Desdemona would never have "despatched her household cares in haste" to listen to his philosophical speculations, in dark conflicts with his own spirit. Portia would have studied him; Juliet would have pitied him; Rosalind would have turned him over with a smile to the melancholy Jaques; Beatrice would have laughed at him outright; Isabel would have reasoned with him; Miranda could but have wondered at him; but Ophelia loves him. Ophelia, fair, inexperienced girl, facile to every impression, fond in her simplicity, and credulous in her innocence, loves Hamlet. It has been questioned by critics whether or not Hamlet ever felt any real, deep love for Ophelia; that "there is nothing in the character of Ophelia which could make her the object of an engrossing passion to so majestic a spirit as Hamlet."

Of her subsequent madness what can be said? What an affecting picture of a mind utterly, hopelessly wrecked — past hope, past cure. Ophelia's madness is not the suspension, but the utter destruction, of the reasoning powers. It is total imbecility. Constance is frantic; Lear is mad; Ophelia is insane. Her sweet mind lies in fragments before us. Ophelia appears here like a spotless victim offered up to the mysterious and inexorable Fates. Her virgin's innocence was doomed to perish by that relentless power which linked her destiny with crimes and contests in which she has no part but as a sufferer. It is Goethe who says: "It is the property of crime to extend its mischiefs over innocence, as it is of virtue to extend its blessings over many that deserve them not."

For further details see: "Shakespeare's Female Characters," by Lady Martin (Helen Faucit), published by Blackwood & Sons, London and Edinburgh.

Will you kindly inform me how the continents, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia come to be so named?

Australia (formerly New Holland) derives its name from its geographical location (*Australis* "Southern"); *Africa* was originally the name of a small tract on the north coast, still surviving in the *Friga* of the Tunisian Tell, and was extended under Roman influence to the whole of the "Dark Continent;" the origin of the word *Asia* cannot be accurately determined: it is supposed to have been a local name given by the Greeks to the plains of Ephesus, and afterwards extended to the Anatolian peninsula, and later on to the whole of the continent; *Europe* (Lat. *Europa*) is so named by the Asiatic Greeks, either from its wide coast or from the Phœnician Princess Europa.

Please give me your advice in regard to the various scientific professions, for one or other of which I am preparing myself at a city college. I desire to enter a profession that offers a wide field for discovery and research, and wish to know the approximate cost of preparatory study and the after financial value of the scientific callings.

Your letter is too general to allow of a detailed and specific answer, since the occupations that come under the scientific professions are too varied for lengthy answer, without knowing your abilities, qualifications or tastes. Moreover, you do not say whether you purpose entering a profession to teach or to practice it.

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Science, nowadays, is so specialized that we have in every branch of it separate departments and fields of research and work. Physical science, for instance, is subdivided into the branches of Natural Philosophy or Physics, Mechanics and Hydrostatics, Acoustics, Optics, Light, Heat, Electricity and Magnetism. Allied with this is, usually, Mathematical Science. Mechanical Science especially includes Applied Mechanics, and, in addition, Civil Engineering, Surveying, Architecture, etc. Other branches of science comprise Chemistry, Geology, Botany, Physiology, Biology, Anthropology, and Zoölogy. All these demand special courses of study and most of them call for special gifts in the student. As to results, in the way of rewards, that again depends upon ability and attainment, as well as upon the success of one's research or achievement. A chair of any one of these departments at a university or school of science brings, usually, a good income to the incumbent, and bright, clever, hard-working and enthusiastic men are always sure of good recognition and a high status in the community.

In the practical professions, perhaps few are better paid where there is high ability, than in surgery, or as a consulting electrician or engineer. The cost of preparing oneself for any of these professions naturally varies, and especially so according as one may give to their study three or four, or five or six years, in a good university, or under competent experts.

If you have not yet elected to follow any special pursuit, you may find advantage in perusing Dr. Baldwin's "Guide to Systematic Readings in the Encyclopædia Britannica" and studying the articles in that work to which the Guide refers you. One gain in consulting the work is, that it may help you to discover the bent of your inclination and tastes.

Kindly inform me how best to judge what a young man, aged nineteen, and having had a thorough English education, has a talent for as an occupation in life.

You can best judge what a boy has a talent for by observing how he employs himself and noticing the bent of his tastes. Much can be determined, also, by the character of the education he has had, and to what branch or department of study — whether the practical or the literary — he has shown inclination for. Sounding him by catechizing is another mode of learning what the lad would like to take to for a life's occupation. By such means, as well as by other indications of his general inclinations and tastes, you can ascertain whether he would make a good business man, has a liking for outdoor life, or has attainments for and a bent towards scientific or professional work.

Will you please inform a reader through the valuable columns of your SELF CULTURE, (1) What is meant by the term "Preparing for College?" (2) Is it necessary for a young man to have gone through a High School, to have a successful career at a College or University? (3) I am a good stenographer and have a knowledge of bookkeeping. Do you think I can make my qualifications help me in paying my way through, either by teaching shorthand, or doing office work outside of the lecture hours? (4) Will you kindly name a few of the best Colleges or Universities for taking a thorough law course?

"Preparing for college" means to get up the work, a knowledge of which is exacted from candidates in the entrance examinations at a university. Most of the higher colleges have a standard for entrance which those offering themselves for matriculation must attain before they are admitted. To take a satisfactory Arts course in a university, you would have either to be prepared by a tutor privately or to have gone through a High School or other preparatory institution. You should have a good English education, with a knowledge of Latin, if not of Greek, mathematics, and some science. In the best colleges, these are essential requirements before you are matriculated. In entering a school of law, the standard of preliminary training may not in all cases be so exacting, though you should be able to do the work taught in the lower forms, at least in High Schools, and have acquaintance with Latin. There are admirable law schools in connection with the great universities of Yale, Harvard, Columbia, Pennsylvania, etc., and you can learn what their fees are and the length of the course by applying to the registrar in each case and desiring a curriculum to be sent you. We do not doubt that at some, perhaps in all, of these institutions you could pay your way by doing work as a stenographer or other clerical duty.

In our advertising pages you will find advertised several good schools of law, apart from universities, and of some near home. By writing to any of these, you can find out what prospect there may be of giving your services as a shorthand writer in part payment of the college fees, etc.

In my reading lately I have seen mention made of an American scientist,

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named Count Rumford. Will SELF CULTURE state who he was and when he lived, and say where I can learn anything about him? He was, I gather, a man of some distinction.

Benjamin Thompson, Count Rumford (1753–1814), was a native of Massachusetts, who sympathized with the pre-Revolutionary movement, but the jealousy of his fellow-officers in the New Hampshire regiments alienated him from the patriotic cause and he afterwards served on the royal side. In the Encyclopædia Britannica, under Thompson, Sir Benjamin, Count Rumford (Vol. XXIII, page 309), you will find an account of his life. At the close of the war he went to Bavaria, and soon rose high in royal favor, exerting himself to bring about reforms in many directions, but continuing his investigations in physics, which he had early begun in America. In the meantime he was created a count, choosing his title from Rumford, near Concord, New Hampshire. In 1795 he visited England, where he was well received. Various economical appliances of heat engaged his attention; but he is especially remarkable for the experiments on which he founded the modern theory that heat is a mode of motion. Having observed the heat produced in the metal of a cannon while it was being bored, he found that by rotating rapidly a metal cylinder in water, sufficient heat was produced to boil the water. From the conditions of this experiment he inferred that heat is not matter but motion. (For details, see Ellis's Life, appended to the works of Count Rumford, in 5 volumes; also, see Appendix to Chap. II, of Tyndall's "Heat as a Mode of Motion.") This conclusion paved the way for one of the greatest discoveries of the nineteenth century—"The conservation of energy." Count Rumford founded a professorship at Harvard, and he was the founder and the first recipient of the Rumford medal of the London Royal Society. He died near Paris in 1814.

Will you do me the favor of giving me a few thoughts for an essay on George Eliot's more notable female characters?

It has been said of George Eliot that it is in creating her characters that she especially shows her genius. There are some artists who, in their novels, concentrate the light of an intense intelligence and passionate sympathy upon two or three chief personages who move in an oppressive glare of consciousness, while towards the remainder they show themselves almost indifferent. But so varied, and full of reasonableness and oftentimes vigor, are the sympathies of George Eliot that they spread with a powerful and even flow in every direction. Her sketches of women, as one might expect, are especially interesting, and yet, on reviewing the male characters in her works, we find in them a like psychological profundity. In the portrayal of all her characters we find the same glance, which divines all motives, which lays bare all feelings, and which would be more pitiless than remorse itself, if the author's penetration were not equalled by her tenderness for human weakness and human suffering. Her Tito is condemned, decreed to death, but he is understood far too truly to be disliked. Hetty, with her little butterfly soul, pleasure-loving but not passionate, luxurious, vain, hard of heart, is viewed with the sincerest and most intelligent sympathy. Hinda, who has no more soul than a pigeon, is still lovable, after her kind; and up from these through the hierarchy of human character to Romola and Fedalma, to Zarca and Savonarola, there is not one a grade too low, nor one too high, for love to reach. Poverty of nature and the stains of sin do not alienate the passionate attachment of this author's heart to all that is natural and human.

George Eliot has created a kind of character in fiction in which she will probably have no successor. Her's is the novel of moral analysis. Two of her strongest creations are those of Gwendolen and Grandcourt. Some inconsistencies may be detected in the outlining of these characters, but if she has elsewhere drawn figures more thorough, stronger, and more remarkable for their moral unity, she has created none more constructively and of such depth. One can see Grandcourt, with his pale face, his placid and disdainful demeanor. Between his fingers is the eternal cigar, on his lips the oath of ill-temper or the yawn of *ennui*. A stranger to all moral life, he knows nothing of men but their foibles and their follies. A thorough *blasé*, he has no pleasure left but in oppressing others. His last enjoyment is in ill-treating his dogs, giving pain to his inferiors, tyrannizing over his wife, provoking rebellion in order to crush it. There is meanness under the elegant manners, and cruelty under the well-bred coldness — a monster inside the correct and polished gentleman.

The portrait of Gwendolen is still more carefully studied. She possesses the formidable power of beauty. She knows it, and she has early acquired the egotism which often accompanies the consciousness of recognized superiority. Accustomed from her infancy to see her mother and sisters the slaves of her caprice, she will carry with her into society the assurance of victory, which is one of its guarantees, the haughty

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grace which is made more piquant by her spoilt-child's fancies, her impatience, her very imprudence itself. She is wilful, but purposelessly so; ambitious, but with no passionate desires. She asks nothing of life but excitement, brilliant success, the intoxication of flattery, the exercise of despotic power. And, yet, Gwendolen's nature is not corrupt. Frivolous and worldly as she is, she still possesses a kind of innocence. There is in her the germ of a higher life, which only waits for the contact of some proper influence to shoot forth.

It is this germination of the ideal in the heart of a woman given up to society that George Eliot has tried to paint. She represents her heroine as needing some attachment to abandon her commonplace life, and a man to serve her as a conscience. She marries Grandcourt to escape the mediocrity of her fortune, and becomes the victim of a hateful tyrant. The picture of this hidden agony of her heroine has been powerfully portrayed by the author. Even in the work of George Eliot there are few things so powerful as this moral tragedy.

George Eliot, especially in her portrayal of feminine character, does not aspire to paint irreproachable characters, but characters in which good and evil are mixed, which call for indulgence, for which we feel attachment, even while we condemn them. It is character in process of change that engages all her interest. We have soul speaking to soul — Dinah to Hetty; Felix to Esther; Dorothea to Ladislaw; Savonarola to Romola.

George Eliot shows in her characters some terrible examples of the crippling of another's life by one's egoism, as in Rosamond Vincy and Lydgate, to whom Casaubon and Dorothea form so fine a parallel and contrast. She also shows the strong claims of race and family love. Maggie Tulliver's action at the end of "The Mill on the Floss" is entirely based on the claims of family, as opposed to personal affection for Stephen Guest. This comes out still more strongly in the characters of Romola and of Daniel Deronda in the claims of race. Fedalma, also, sacrifices everything to the claims of race. Another example of ruin wrought by egoism, is in the overthrow of the great schemes of Zarca by the egoistic loves of Silva and Fedalma.

George Eliot has given us some charming portraitures of religious natures, conspicuously that most noble one of the female Methodist preacher. Dolly Winthrop's feeling of religious truth "in her inside" and the naïve anthropomorphism of her Raveloe theology, contain the essence of all religion and differ from the sublimest devotion of saint or mystic not in kind but in degree. It has been said that the "dramatic appropriateness of the humorous utterances of George Eliot's characters renders them unpresentable by way of extract. Each is like the expression of a face which cannot be detached from the face itself." The tragic aspect of life, as viewed by this great writer, is derived from the Titanic strife of egoistic desires, with duties which the conscience confesses, and those emotions which transcend the interest of the individual. It seems to her no easy thing to cast away *self*. All the noblest characters she has conceived, — the heroic feminine characters or those that might have been heroic, characters of great sensibility, great imaginative power, great fervor of feeling, Maggie, Romola, Fedalma, Armgart — cling with passionate attachment to the joy which has to be renounced. The dying to self is the dying of young creatures full of strength and the gladness of living. The doctrine of the necessity for self-renunciation, of the obligation laid upon men to accept some other rule of conduct than the desire of pleasure, is enforced in the destinies of the characters of George Eliot with terrible emphasis.

See "Studies in Literature, 1789–1877," by Prof. Edward Dowden; "Essays on English Literature," by Edmund Scherer: Charles Scribner's Sons, New York; and Hutton's "Essays on Some Modern Guides to English Thought."

[CORRESPONDENCE.]

In your October issue of SELF CULTURE your answer to an inquiry about the letters customarily used in musical notation (page 74) is, to my mind, rather misleading. You say "In the natural scale the order of these letters is as follows:"

$\frac{1}{c}\ \frac{2}{d}\ \frac{3}{e}\ \frac{4}{f}\ \frac{5}{g}\ \frac{6}{a}\ \frac{7}{b}$ (or in German $\frac{6}{h}$), $\frac{8}{c}$.

I think the number over the note h (in parenthesis) should be 7, because in the natural scale, in German, we have no note called "b." Again, you say that the musical sounds consist of the seven letters a, b, c, d, e, f and g and in German h, in addition. Now the difference lies here, what we call "b flat" in our language, is simply called "b" in German. It ought to be called "h flat," but instead the German calls it simply "b." I hope I have made my idea plain.

I want to add that I am more than pleased with SELF CULTURE. Your articles are not only highly instructive, but combine with them exceedingly interesting and entertaining reading matter. For its careful and painstaking preparation, I for one wish to thank you.

G. FRED. STEIL.

NEW YORK, Oct. 12.

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NEW INFORMATION NOTES

The new Chicago public library was opened on October 9. The building was begun five years ago, and has cost nearly $2,000,000. While the structure itself is massive and plain, the interior decorations are costly and beautiful. The mosaic work is especially fine; its total area covers 10,000 square feet more, it is said, than is to be found in any building since the thirteenth century. The book capacity of the library is 2,000,000 volumes; it now contains a trifle over 220,000. An annual expenditure on books of $35,000 is authorized, a larger sum than is expended by any library except the British Museum. Appointments in the library will be made under civil-service rules.

While climbing a staircase or ladder a man can exert about 2,000,000 foot-pounds in a day of eight hours. An average military ration is the equivalent of about four pounds of meat, of which fully three-fourths are water, and one-half of the remaining fourth only is carbon, so that half a pound of carbon, burnt in the human furnace, will do as much work as four times the quantity in form of coal used through the medium of an engine and boiler. For the present, at least, therefore, the most economical form of stored energy which one can carry about with him is a good square meal, although its conversion into effective work may not be so pleasant an operation as that of permitting the coal to expend its own latent energy.

The Congress of San Salvador has passed a Bill putting the country on a gold basis, a crisis having been caused by a "slump" in silver. The President was authorized to negotiate a foreign loan of $2,500,000. The Bill will come into effect in two months, when the customs duties will be payable in gold only.

The building of a railroad through Chilkoot Pass, Alaska, will be undertaken by the Chilkoot Railroad and Transportation Company, of Tacoma. It will be eight miles long and will connect Dyea at tidewater with the mouth of the Dyea Cañon. Transportation through this cañon and across the pass to Crater Lake will be effected, says the "Scientific American," by a system of tramways, the contract for which has been awarded to the Trenton, N. J. Iron Company, which agrees to have them in operation by June 15, 1898. The tramway will be of the Bleichert system. The first one will be four miles in length, reaching from the cañon to Sheep Camp, with a rise of 1,000 feet. A second tramway will extend from Sheep Camp to Summit, three and one-half miles, with a rise of 2,500 feet, and thence to Crater Lake, with a fall of 500 feet. Iron supports will be put in every 100 feet. The tramway will have a capacity of 120 tons daily — sufficient for the outfits of 200 miners.

Providence, says a contemporary, has vouchsafed to the American farmer this year crops that are unusually gratifying. The unfortunate condition which bears so heavily upon other great grain-producing countries is aiding in bringing to him splendid financial returns. Recent statistics show that in twenty-six farming countries of Ohio the total acreage of 6,972,777 acres is worth to-day $300,774,636, as against $261,931,225 a year ago — an average increase of $5.70 per acre, and a total increase of nearly $40,000,000. In Indiana, forty-nine counties, or more than one-half of the whole number, show a total farm acreage of 9,670,886, with a present valuation of $345,835,762, as compared with $303,385,331 twelve months ago. The reports from other quarters are equally favorable.

Even the most ignorant, said the London "Times" the other day, will soon be ashamed to repeat the old cry that the rich are becoming richer and the poor poorer. It was once necessary to refute this popular sophism. Now it is not; on all hands there is overwhelming evidence that the poor are steadily becoming richer, and that a smaller proportion of the produce of industry goes to the wealthy. In the report on changes in rates of wages and hours of work in England, issued by the London Board of Trade, there are striking signs of this transformation, which is going on, rarely with the intervention of strikes or unions, over almost the whole face of industry. The figures are free from some of the infirmities of earlier returns on this subject. They claim to cover industries wherein are employed eight millions and a half of persons; and they all testify to an improvement in the position of the workers — an improvement probably greater in the United Kingdom than in any other country.

For one fall in wages in 1896, adds the authority we have quoted, there were about ten rises. For one person disadvantageously affected by changes, more than two-thirds were benefited. In the four years 1893–96 there was a decrease in the hours of labor per week, and in the last of the four the changes affected a far larger number of persons than in any of the three previous years. Lying outside the world described in this report, is a multitude of persons, who, it is pretty certain, have not shared in the rises in remuneration. For them there is no talk of a "fair day's wage" or an eight hours' day. It is possible that in many cases their remuneration has decreased just as their toil has increased. Their grievances are rarely heard of. They have no means of coercing their employers. They have no special Acts passed for their relief, no *privilegia* of any kind. There is a dark side to modern industry, but it is not so much the fate of the manual worker or artisan as that of the small employer, saddled with all the risks of a capitalist, the solitary worker whose means are his brains and education, the poor teacher or governess, the clerk with all his crushing load of respectability, the struggling professional man whose remuneration is small, uncertain and deferred.

The New South Wales Government states that it has found such difficulty in placing in England an order for 2,000 tons of steel rails of high carbon quality that it has been compelled to order them in America, where the manufacturers readily undertook the contract at the price of £5 ($25.00) a ton.

A quasi-official commission has reached this country from Japan charged with the duty of giving publicity to the merits of Japanese teas,

and the best methods of preparing them as a beverage. The commission is planning to open tea bazaars in many of the chief cities in the United States and Canada, where ladies can enjoy a cup of fine Japanese tea made by experts, and at the same time receive instructions which will enable them to make it equally well at home. More than half the tea consumed in the United States and Canada is of Japanese growth, yet the majority of Americans apparently do not understand how to prepare it so as to develop the delicious qualities which it contains. It is believed by these gentlemen that, when Americans are in possession of the secret of making good tea, the consumption in this country will fully equal that of Europe in proportion. The Japanese Government has appropriated a large fund to aid the Japanese tea growers and tea merchants in prosecuting this educational work, and it is hoped that American ladies will be apt students. The main Bureau of the Japanese Tea Guild has issued an official recipe for making Japanese tea, the translation of which is as follows:

First.— Use a small, dry and thoroughly clean porcelain teapot.

Second. — Put in one teaspoonful of tea leaves for each cup of tea desired.

Third. — When using Japanese teas, pour on the required quantity of fresh boiled water, and let stand with closed lid from two to three minutes. Never boil the leaves. In order to retain the natural flavor, Japanese tea leaves should be kept in a tight can or jar, free from moisture.

To thoroughly enjoy the natural, delicate and sweet flavor of Japanese teas, neither sugar nor cream, it is said, should be used.

The shipments of iron ore through the Sault Ste. Marie canal this season to October 1 were about 9,750,000 tons. There is now no doubt that all records will be broken and that the tonnage for the year will exceed 11,000,000. Stocks on hand are also melting away and the coming winter promises to be a most busy one at the mines.

The gold production of the Witswatersrand (Transvaal) in August was 259,608 ounces, which was a great increase over that of the previous month, and is the largest for any single month in the history of the district. The production in 1896 was 2,281,875 crude ounces, and in the first eight months of 1897 it was 1,890,513. Other gold fields are doing much better than last year, especially in the United States. The outlook is for a large increase in the world's total supply of gold this year.

A French journal has recently expressed surprise at how little the telephone is used in France in comparison with neighboring countries like Germany and Switzerland, for while the number of "communications" in France last year was only seventy-four millions, the total for Germany, excluding Bavaria and Würtemberg, was over four hundred and twenty-four millions. Switzerland, with a population barely the tenth of France, had, at the end of last year, over 1,000 miles of telephone lines, with 29,533 subscribers and about fifteen million communications. While the cost of the telephone in Switzerland is more than covered by the receipts, the contrary is the case in France, though the subscription is much higher than in any of the other countries, being as much as $80 a year, and from $40 to $60 in provincial towns, to say nothing of each subscriber having to contribute towards the cost of laying down the wires.

What the man of to-day needs most is not athletics in a gymnasium, but plenty of fresh air in his lungs. Instead of a quantity of violent exercise that leaves him weak for several hours afterward, he needs to learn to breathe aright, stand aright and sit aright. And if the woman who spends so much time and strength getting out into the air would dress loosely and breathe deeply and so get the air into her, she would have new strength and vigor, and soon be freed from many aches and pains and miseries.

The recent recovery of some remains of the famous triremes (state-barges) of the Emperor Tiberius, which lie at the bottom of Lake Nemi, is of great interest both to artists and antiquaries. The lake of Nemi, which is situated about seventeen miles southeast of Rome, is formed by the crater of an extinct volcano. Upon its broad bosom once floated the magnificent pleasure-house of the luxurious and licentious Emperor, Tiberius Claudius Nero, who, leaving his duties at Rome in the year A.D. 26, retired the year following to the island of Capreæ, where he indulged in the greatest sensuality. His love of luxury and display was exhibited in the two famous pleasure triremes which bear his name, and the remains of which now lie buried in the lake of Nemi. The discovery referred to consists of the finding of several massive metal mooring-rings and tops of stakes by which the vessels could be moored to the quay. The rings are fixed in the mouths of bronze heads of lions, wolves and Medusæ, by the teeth of which they are retained in their proper places. These bronze heads are marvellously modelled, and the faces are characterized by a life-like similarity to the animals represented. Despite their long immersion in the mud of Lake Nemi, they are all perfectly preserved.

An important subject to engineers and builders, about which very little experimental information is on record, is that of the supporting power of soils, but recently the city engineer of Vienna has taken up the investigation and designed an instrument for exact measurement, and also a practical apparatus for the use of builders and bridge builders. He has ascertained that up to a certain limit the depth to which a given loaded area sinks is directly proportional to the load which it bears, and this limit should in no case be exceeded. His apparatus consists of a base plate and cylinder into which a plunger is fitted and upon which weight can be placed corresponding successively to uniform pressure per unit of area. The corresponding sinking of the plunger into soil is then very precisely measured by a micrometer upon a multiplying column. For the practical use of builders this apparatus is replaced by a rod carrying a divided head, upon which a tube containing a spiral spring is fitted. The end of the rod is provided with a number of tips of various determined areas, in order that one adapted to the nature of the soil may be selected, and, by pressing this on various portions of the ground to be tested and taking readings from the spring scale, the relation between the pressure and the penetration may be obtained.

The unsuitability of wood as a paving material, from the sanitarian's point of view, cannot be too frequently insisted upon. It is contended that the porous nature of the material causes it to absorb readily the moisture which falls upon its surface, and so to become saturated with the noxious liquids and filth common to every road. In order to last as long as possible, the blocks are set with the grain of the wood vertical, and this intensifies the propensity to absorb moisture. It is said that in dry weather, under the sun's rays, disagreeable odors are given off by the saturated wood; and, worse than this, the dust which is produced by the wearing of the blocks carries the germs of disease and noxious products into the nostrils and lungs of the populace. There is reason to think, too, that in narrow streets, fenced in by buildings so high as not to permit of the action of the sun on the surface of the pavement, the pestilential character of the absorbed filth remains still more pronounced than in the broader thoroughfares, where the sun and air are able to exercise their purifying agency.

The voice of the American child of to-day, says a writer in "The Outlook," contrasts unfavorably with that of other nationalities, and why? Aside from the influences of heredity, climate, and the tension of life in this country, the influence of imitation upon the child's voice cannot be overestimated. This influence begins with the first word the infant utters, which is an imitation of mother, nurse, or other companion, in form and tone. Yet how many of our cultured men or women are fitted thus by example to instruct the child during the formative period in the expression of the impressions received? Our language is called harsh, unmusical, and inexpressive; this is owing to our ignorance in presenting its beauties of tone and modulation, as the English know how to do. Monotony of speech forms the basis of many nerve-tiring voices and much of our poor reading, and should be corrected when it first appears in the child.

"No statesman of our time," says a recent writer, with reference to Prince Bismarck, "has made so much history, and none of his contemporaries has learned so much from history. He has not Mr. Gladstone's knowledge of the classics, his Latin was found deficient in taste by his tutor, and he has openly avowed his preference for Russian over Greek. But his familiarity with history is probably unrivalled among practical politicians of the first rank. Even as a child he devoured history in the form of stories. He knew the 'tale of Troy divine' off by heart, and entered into the spirit of the narrative with such zest that his schoolfellows christened him the 'Telamonian Ajax.' The uncongenial studies of the University had no interest for him, but no sooner had he shaken the dust of the schools from off his feet, than he devoted all his spare time to independent historical reading. Years after, as the result of his own vast experience, he expressed the opinion that a properly directed study of history was the essential foundation of all true statesmanship."

The use of salt as a condiment, says the "Journal of Hygiene," is so general and so universally believed in as necessary that we rarely hear a word against its excessive use, but there are a multitude of persons who eat far too much salt; eat it on everything — on meat, fish, potatoes, melons, in butter, on tomatoes, turnips and squashes, in bread and on a host of foods too numerous to mention. To so great an extent is it used that no food is relished which has not a salty taste, and this hides more or less the real taste, which is often very delicate. Now, the amount of salt required in the system is comparatively small, and if the diet has been rightly compounded, very little is necessary.

In 1866 steel rails cost $165 per ton. In 1884 they had dropped to $34, in 1893 they were $21 to $24 per ton, and in 1897 even less. See how that has expedited the building of railroads which now cover the country like a network and without which modern enterprise could not be carried on. And the same is true of steel in all its forms. So that to-day we build steel bridges, steel vessels, steel cannon, steel frames for our buildings and for farm implements, and use steel nails. Inventions and improvements have so reduced the cost of steel rails that already, during the year 1897, the United States have sold 100,000 tons to Europe.

The election for civic officers of the first administration of the Greater New York resulted in a victory for the entire Tammany ticket. Van Wyck's (Tam.) pluralities, as nearly as can be estimated, are:

Manhattan and the Bronx	63,228
Brooklyn	11,422
Richmond	3,358
Queens	2,095
Total	80,103

Van Wyck polled about 228,688 votes; Low (Ind.), 148,585; Tracy (Rep.), 101,571, and George (Jeff. Dem.), 19,864. Though it failed, very gratifying, it will be seen, is the strength of the anti-Tammany vote.

In 1860 the per capita consumption of iron in the United States was only 62 pounds. In 1870 it had increased to 102 pounds; in 1880 it was 240 pounds; and in 1890 it rose to 334 pounds — an increase of more than five-fold in thirty years.

A report on Spanish finance says that the Budget for 1896–97, as finally passed, showed a revenue of £30,771,450, and an expenditure of £30,456,584, and the estimated surplus was in fact slightly exceeded. For the current year the estimated expenditure is £34,954,635 and the revenue £35,331,150. The extraordinary Budget for 1896–97 gave an expenditure of £9,360,000, largely intended for naval development. The public debt is £353,265,771, including over seventy millions of Cuban debt, and the interest amounts to almost fourteen millions sterling. Last November an internal loan of £16,000,000 was floated, and was over-subscribed. Among the new measures for the current year are an increase, not exceeding ten per cent., on every item in the Budget; a petroleum monopoly and one of gunpowder and explosives, and a tax on railway and tramway tickets. A loan on the quicksilver mines of Almaden is also proposed. The extraordinary Budget for the current year amounts to nearly nine millions sterling, more than half going for military and naval expenditure.

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THE WORLD OF THOUGHT:

ABOUT BOOKS AND THEIR AUTHORS

A Good History of Germany

Readers of SELF CULTURE have more than once desired of us some information respecting the best available history of Germany, in popular form, for the use of the American student. To these inquirers we have pointed to several works, such as Menzel's History, issued in the Bohn Library (3 vols.), Baring-Gould's "Germany Past and Present," and Bayard Taylor's well-informed sketch, based on David Müller's History. We have also referred the student-inquirer to the notable works dealing with epochs in the national history, such as Gindely's "The Thirty Years' War," and to recent narratives of events, memoirs, etc., that tell the story of national unification, with biographies of the great characters who have figured in the later German annals. For the wants of the general student perhaps no better work exists, however, than the "History of Germany from the Earliest Times," prepared by Prof. Charlton T. Lewis, on the basis of Dr. David Müller's "History of the German People" (New York: Harper and Brothers, price $1.50). Mr. Lewis's work is an interesting and valuable compendium of the history, and to those who are drawn to German annals, in the course of their historical studies, Lewis's manual will be found useful and adequate.

Apart from the special interest all English-speaking people should feel in the history of Germany, there are weighty reasons why it ought to occupy a prominent place in any course of historical reading. Conceding to our own history an educational precedence, we should be disposed to rank next and, if possible, parallel to it, the tangled web of German story. It is to the great Teutonic stock we owe the backbone of our language and of our laws, the freedom of our political system and of our religious worship. Without, however, going farther back than the Carlovingian dynasty, what a record is that of Germany for more than a millennium! Of the four early dynasties, each had its distinctive feature and its representative man. Leaving Charlemagne out of the reckoning, Arnulf is the man, and the final severance of the Frank and Teuton powers, the characteristic. Of the Saxon Emperors, Otto III., whose fanaticism led him to seek a foothold in Italy, is the foremost figure. Under the Franconians, the deadly struggle with the Popes for supremacy, the war concerning the episcopal investitures with the names of Henry and Gregory VII., and then with the Hohenstaufen house, we encounter the crusades, the rise of the Guelfs and Ghibellines, and the gradual breaking up of German unity. These were the days of Frederick Barbarossa, Richard Cœur de Lion, Saladin, Innocent III., and Arnold of Brescia.

Following the old dynasties we arrive at the purely feudal period, the independence of the barons, their private wars and their oppressions; the rise of the cities; the emancipation of Switzerland and its struggles for liberty. These were the days when there were at one time three rival emperors, and two and sometimes three rival popes. The House of Hapsburg had risen in the person of Rudolph. Sigismund and the Council of Constance, the violated safe-conduct and the burning of Huss, pass before us as precursors of the dawn. Everywhere there was disintegration. The Empire was powerless, the nobles uncontrolled, the Judicial circles and the Imperial Court of Justice impotent, the Diet an additional cause of confusion.

Then follow in grand succession the Reformation, the Peasants' Wars, the Thirty Years' War, the rise of Prussia, with the great Elector and the greater Frederick, the Seven Years' War, the Partition of Poland, the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleon I., the humiliation of Germany at Austerlitz, Jena and Wagram, the war of Liberation in 1813, and Waterloo. Finally, the grand epoch which culminated in the establishment of a new German Empire and consolidated German unity upon the ashes of France. Varied, however, and interesting as the incidents of this history are, they only form a portion of its value. The social life of a people where serfdom continued to exist till Stein put an end to it at the beginning of this century, the religious struggles and controversies, orthodox and rationalistic, the philosophy and science, the poetry and romance of this deep-thinking and hard-reading people — all form in combination a subject unequalled perhaps as a study of individual, social and national life.

Mr. Lewis's book is a most praiseworthy effort to supply a want long felt by English readers. Perhaps with the exception of Kohlrausch, which was accepted *faut de mieux*, we had no fairly readable and fairly accurate elementary manual of German history. Mr. Lewis's history is not too much encumbered with detail; it is clear and lucid in style, orderly in arrangement, and on the whole accurate in statements of fact. The author did well to take a good German manual; by doing so he has imparted to the narrative the warmth of color and the glow of

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patriotism which give life to the soulless chronicle of historic deeds. That his work is so useful and so animated we owe to the strong national feeling of Dr. Müller. No man can write a country's history as a native can write it. He may be prejudiced and, consciously or unconsciously, warp the facts occasionally in the interests and for the reputation of his nation. These are blemishes which must be corrected by more extended study; but, after all, they are cheaply purchased when they are attended with the warmth and vitality of a deep, an almost religious love of country. When we read the story of the War of Liberation in this volume, we know that Dr. Müller has left his mark there. In Germany at the present time the fire of patriotism is at its height, and men write history with vigor because they have acted it in earnest, sword in hand. We can read the history of England's great civil war of the Revolution of 1688, and even the triumph at Waterloo, with cold-blooded equanimity, without a quickening of the pulse. It is not so in Germany. The struggle of 1813 is not forgotten, and Sadowa, Wörth, Weissenburg, Gravelotte, Sedan and Paris represent in contemporary events the conflict for national unity and national independence and their final triumph. We may partly appreciate if we fail to realize the feelings of Germany when it has at length secured the boon for which generation upon generation has sighed and prayed and bled in vain.

Not the least of the merits of Mr. Lewis's history are the chapters on the state of society at the close of each period. The sketches given of the social condition of the people, the progress of science, art and literature, are models of accuracy and conciseness. Every notable name is represented by a short biography and, in the case of literary men, by a brief account of their chief works. The volume is illustrated by engravings of the effigies of all the emperors from Charlemagne A.D. 800 to William I. A.D. 1871. There are also two maps, representing Germany as it was under the Hohenstaufen dynasty and under Wilhelm I.

A word or two on the other side. It seems to us that the space allotted by Mr. Lewis to the Reformation and to the Thirty Years' War is inadequate. By retrenching the preliminary book, which attempts to cover a vast subject which cannot be fully considered in a work of this sort, the periods of which we speak, infinitely more interesting to the reader, might have had more elbow-room. We do not think that Wallenstein's character has full justice done to it. That he was as bad as Mr. Lewis portrays him there can be no doubt, but we do justice to the Corsican and why not to the Bohemian adventurer. One thing is certain, that to this day Wallenstein is remembered with gratitude by Germany as the first apostle of national unity, and when Schiller, in his two dramas, selected him as the hero of the historical drama, he did so advisedly.

It would perhaps be hypercritical to complain that Mr. Lewis has followed the older writers in censuring Frederick the Great for the first partition of Poland. It is proved beyond question that Frederick's own account of the matter was the correct one. He wanted peace after the terrible struggle of the Seven Years' War, but he wanted the Russian alliance to enable him to secure it.

We have only to repeat our commendation of this history, because we believe it to be, on the whole, the best manual of German history at present before the public.

Prof. Hart's "Composition and Rhetoric"

There has hitherto been no greater desideratum, in educational manuals treating of the construction of our mother tongue, than a good and rational textbook on English composition. Many of the ambitious works we have met with have been of little practical value, since the subject cannot effectively be taught from rules — one of the vices bequeathed to us by the old-time study of the Latin and Greek classics. The tendency has been to make the art of writing the language as difficult, rather than as easy, as possible, and to discuss and elaborate general principles, instead of illustrating these by clear and practical examples. To our mind, the most useful method of teaching composition is by setting before the learner good models, and if specimens of bad English are given him, care should be taken to indicate explicitly why they are bad, and wherein they violate the cardinal principle of all composition — the clear, unambiguous transmission of thought from one mind to another. It should also be shown him wherein the examples involve some absurdity, readily perceived by every one who has read much. Of the manuals we have seen, we have always thought highly of Dr. Hart's class-book, being rich in examples. Though comprehensive, it was worked out on perspicuous and intelligent lines. A revised edition of this work (Eldredge and Brother, publishers, Philadelphia) has been issued by Prof. J. M. Hart, of Cornell, who has added no little to the merit of the book and specially adapted it to the practical wants of students. The chief additions are those on Paragraphing and on Composition-writing, which are dealt with by one who has manifestly had much to do with the practical teaching of English.

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The volume, as a whole, may safely be put into the hands of those for whom it is intended.

"A First Book in Writing English" Dr. E. H. Lewis, Professor of English in the University of Chicago, has done a good service to language and literature students in issuing this common-sense text-book on the writing of English. The work, which is published by The Macmillan Company, New York (price 80 cents) approaches very nearly to the excellence of what, in our judgment, is the best of all aids to students of English — Dr. E. A. Abbott's "How to Write Clearly." Dr. Lewis's work is methodical and well arranged, and cites examples of solecisms and improprieties in the construction and use of sentences, with aids to the avoidance of the same by the learner. Chapters VI and XI, on "Well-Knit Sentences," and on the "Right Number and Skilful Choice of Words" are good instances of the value of the book to the student, as are those on "Grammatical Phases of Writing English," and on "The Mastery of a Writing Vocabulary."

"Lessons in Plant Life" The design of this little volume is to interest the young in Botany, to make plain to them, in an entertaining and instructive way, how plants grow, and to excite wonder and observation in the beautiful processes of plant life. The book is quite elementary, and its methods those of child-talks, designed to impart some simple knowledge of the subject with which it deals, and at the same time to train the power and encourage the habit of observation. The use of the work, by mothers at home as well as by teachers at school, cannot but be interesting to young folk, and a delight to those who would have their eyes opened to the beauties and marvellous adaptations of Nature. The work, which is usefully illustrated, has been prepared by Mrs. H. H. Richardson, and is published by the Johnson Publishing Co. of Richmond, Va.

A Holiday Book Gift In "Santa Claus's New Castle" (Columbus, O., Nitschke Brothers), Maude Florence Bellar has provided a delightful holiday treat for little folk, with illustrations that will brighten the most drowsy, and gladden the most wide-awake eyes. This seasonable little volume is of the type of the Christmas fairy tale, and relates how Santa Claus set off with his team of reindeer, "Blizzard and Whirligig," to choose a site for a snow castle in the far North. Here, in the last belt of timber near the Pole, he manufactured his toys for Yule Tide and made everything ready for his sly annual visits to the homes of little children as the good *génie* of the joyous season. The book tells what happens during these visits, and especially relates a touching story of an orphan child whom Santa Claus found peering wistfully into a well-filled and attractive store window. What interest Santa found in the little chap, and how he disposed of him, making glad the heart of a child of wealthy parents who wished as his Christmas present the companionship of another child who would belong to him and would be his playmate, the young among our readers must discover for themselves in the charming little volume to which the kind-hearted authoress has introduced them.

"Little Hearts" Under this attractive title we have one of the most delightful book issues for the coming holiday season it has been our fortune to come across. There is a pleasing union of pictures and reading matter, much of the latter being in verse of a tripping kind, while the pictures (many of them charmingly colored) form a pretty album likely to make brighter the little eyes that look at them. The book is the joint product of Florence and Bertha Upton, and is published by George Routledge & Sons, W. 23rd St., New York.

"Voices of Doubt and Trust" Under this title [New York: Brentano's], one of the many troubled minds of this perplexed age has compiled, under the evident pseudonym of "Volney Streamer," an anthology which gives expression, chiefly in beautiful and artistic verse, to "a soul's search for Truth, ranging from the darkness of hopeless Doubt to that radiance that fills the heart in sublimest Trust." The collection is unique in its way, grouping, as it does, a choice number of those finely expressed thoughts, in prose and verse, from eminent though sometimes fugitive sources, which have voiced a truth-seeker's aspirations and soul-experiences, now in wistful questionings and anon in staying, comforting and trustful hopes. The aim of the compiler, as he tells us, has been "to give to a larger audience certain of those clear, strong words that have been hitherto sounded for the few only," in the expectation that "the casual reader may perhaps find some new thought, or some new expression of an older hope, that may revive his sinking courage, or give him a moment of cheer." The extracts, which are representative of an age of distracting mental and spiritual problems, are drawn from writers such as Matthew Arnold, Robert Browning, Arthur Hugh Clough, Emerson, Tennyson, John Morley, Huxley, Omar Khayyam, Whitman, Trench, Faber, George Eliot, Goldwin Smith and others, and will, no doubt, be widely appreciated in their compact form and very tasteful dress. G. M. A.

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EDUCATIONAL STUDIES FOR YOUTH:

HIDDEN FIGURES AND FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

IN these days of practical money-seeking men and women — these days when the bread-winners are many, and the knights and their ladies are growing to seem but creatures of fancy, it may sound strange to assert that figurative language is the language of people in all walks of life. Indeed, if one of our boys or girls, students of etymology, should tell a business man that his style of speech is highly figurative, he would smile and reply that metaphors and similes are for Whittier and Longfellow and Tennyson; but if our student should tell him, as he could in truth, that there is a similarity between his language and his business methods, both being concise, vigorous and forceful, he would smile again (a different kind of smile) and say:

"I fear you are trying to flatter me."

"Flatter," did he say? Is he not figurative when he uses that word? Flatter in its root means "to stroke with the flat of the hand," and suggests the act of some furry animal. Such stroking is literally (according to the letter, or "spread over" meaning) soothing to the body, not to the mind.

"I detect your meaning" is a common expression and is suggestive of a house in the Orient, for does not *detect* mean, literally, "to unroof" and whither would you go, except to the Orient, to find a man lifting a part of the roof to get into a house, which had proven difficult of access in the usual way? See Mark 2:4. "Detect your meaning," then, is, by interpretation, "I have got at your meaning only by *unroofing* it."

"You inculcate your ideas well," says one, but is not inculcate a strong word to use here? It means when translated, "To drive in with the heel."

Yes, a little strong. How would this do: "Your meaning is obvious"? That is better. "Obvious" — merely "thrown in the way" of the mind. *Via*, "a way," you see.

"Good night" we often say, and what do we mean? This is a good "breaking away" of the day.

Then there is the word, "bombastic," as applied to the manners of an individual. It means "inflated to a bulky, showy appearance, like a quantity of raw cotton."

We speak of dilapidated houses, and the word comes from *di*, "in different directions," and *lapis*, "a stone" — stones thrown down or fallen here and there in different directions.

Those were wise men who adapted our words from other languages. *Ponder*, for example, is a pleasing word. It implies that the mind is a set of scales, on which to weigh thoughts. "Mary kept all these sayings and pondered (weighed) them." But it is a deplorable fact that through prejudice, anger or ignorance, we allow the scales to become untrue in their records.

In *contrition* is to be seen one of our most forceful faded metaphors, for its literal meaning is, "a grinding to pieces," and perhaps no mental state puts us "through the mill," to come out ground to such small pieces, as does that of contrition.

Then there is *disaster*, with its suggestion of the wave of astrological study that swept over the land during the Middle Ages. *Dis* is a prefix denoting opposite-ness, adverseness (*dis-please*) and when coupled with "*aster*" from *astrum* "a star," it carries the thought of the astrologer — *an adverse or unlucky star;* hence, a disastrous event, is, in its astrological meaning, one projected under an unlucky star. An odd variation in its meaning lies in the fact that it once looked to the conditions surrounding the event in its start, while now it looks to the outcome of the event.

A good expression is that one, "a cordial greeting," meaning one "from the heart."

Town is a word that suggests remote days, when the *tun* was the enclosure belonging to the lord of the manor, and, later, a collection of houses, walled in, for the sake of protection from the surrounding tribes. Towns are no longer towns in the first meaning, for they are no longer walled. Equally great has been the change in the meaning of the word, *extravagant*, which once suggested a wanderer, "beyond bounds." *Vagrant*

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and *vague* are from the same root as gives us extravagant.

A *parasol*, in its origin becomes a weapon in a duel between its user and *Sol*, the sun. It rather implies a sword, for it is used to *parry* the force of Sol's weapon, his rays. An *umbrella* is less combative, in its idea of *umbra*, "a shade," thrown into the diminutive, by means of the modification, "ella" as *stream* is affected by the addition of the syllable, "*let*." An umbr(a)-ella, then, simply casts "*a little shade*."

The change in the meaning of *rivals* is very pronounced. From *rivus*, "a brook" it once meant neighbors having the use of the same brook. Now, it applies to any antagonist. Archbishop Trench, in his "Study of Words," says, with regard to the adoption of its present meaning: —

"Since, as all experience shows, there is no such fruitful source of contention as a water-right, it would continually happen that those occupants of the opposite banks would be at strife with one another, in regard to the periods during which they severally had the right to the use of the stream — and, thus, *rivals* came to be used of any" (persons) — "who were in unfriendly competition with one another."

Scarcely less interesting is the evolution of the meaning of our word *salary* from the word "salt-money," which was part of the pay given to the Roman soldier; or of *person*, from *persona*, "a mask." The English root of the word is "sound," and *per* (through) *sound* is a *sound through* something, in this case a mask. Tracing the origin farther back, we see that the word once referred to an actor, who in those days wore a mask. Then, from that it came to designate the body, as the cover or house of the real being, the soul: as, "Her person is comely," and from that it broadened to take in the individual, himself. Locke says, "Consider what person stands for — a thinking, intelligent being, that has reason and reflection."

In the word *abundance*, we see *unda*, "a wave;" in *digression*, *gradi*, "to walk;" in *desultory*, *salire*, "to leap;" in *candle* and *candid*, *candere*, "to shine;" in *bibulous*, *bibere*, "to drink;" in *attracts*, *trahere*, "to draw;" in *comfort*, allied to fort, a place of defense, *fortis*, "strong," and so on, *ad infinitum*.

Hence the assertion, made at the outset, that we speak in hidden figures, and in doing so, intelligently, we speak tersely, forcefully, energetically.

FANNIE DAY HURST.

SYNONYMS DISCRIMINATED*

Disbelief, *n.*, denial of belief, incredulity.

Syn.: unbelief, scepticsm, infidelity.

Ant.: faith, credence, trust, assent.

Syn. dis.: *Unbelief* is negative; *disbelief* is positive; *unbelief* may arise from want of knowledge, but disbelief rejects as false. *Unbelief* is the absence, *disbelief* the refusal of credit. *Incredulity* and *infidelity* are used, the former to signify absence of belief where it is *possible*, the latter absence of belief where it is *right*. *Incredulity* may be therefore right where it denotes a proper reluctance of assent to what ought not to be easily believed, or not believed at all; *infidelity* is, by the force of the term, wrong. *Scepticism* implies disbelief or inability to believe, and commonly expresses a doubting of the truth of revelation or of the Christian religion.

Distinguished, *adj.*, noted or celebrated for some superior or extraordinary quality; marked, famous.

Syn.: eminent, illustrious, conspicuous, prominent.

Ant.: common, commonplace, obscure, ordinary.

Syn. dis.: *Distinguished* directly relates to persons and to deeds, and to persons for the sake of their deeds: it conveys the idea of social eminence or prominence as the result of public services rendered, or merit publicly exhibited. *Eminent* is only employed of persons — those who stand above their fellows: when things stand out conspicuously they are called *prominent; e. g.*, the *eminent* characters of history, and the *prominent* events. *Illustrious* is used strictly only of persons, inasmuch as human acts or character can alone make things illustrious, as being the agents or recipients of what is illustrious; thus we speak of *illustrious* heroes, nobles, titles. If we speak of *illustrious* deeds or events, it is as being done or brought about by human agency.

Docile, *adj.* (dō′-sīl or dŏs′-īl), easily instructed or managed; teachable; willing or ready to learn.

Syn.: tractable, amenable, compliant, tame.

Ant.: stubborn, dogged, intractable, obstinate.

Syn. dis.: *Docile* (*lit.* easy to teach (implies more than *tractable* (easy to handle): *tractable* denotes no more than the absence of refractoriness, *docile* the actual quality of meekness. *Amenable* is commonly used of human

*(Continued from the September issue, Vol. V., p. 570.)

beings who are willing to be guided by persuasion, entreaty, and reason, without requiring coercion. The *docile* are easily taught or led; the *tractable* easily managed; the *amenable* easily governed and persuaded.

Economy, *n.*, the frugal and prudent management of a family or household; the judicious management of the affairs of an office or a nation.

Syn. : frugality, parsimony, thrift.

Ant. : liberality, generosity.

Syn. dis. : *Economy* implies management; *frugality* implies temperance; *parsimony* implies simply forbearing to spend, which is in fact the common idea included in these terms.

Effect, *n.*, result or consequence of a cause of agent. [Do not confound with affect.]

Syn. : result, consequence.

Syn. dis. : *Effect* applies either to physical or moral objects; *consequence*, only to moral subjects. An *effect* is that which necessarily flows out of the cause,—the connection between the *cause* and the *effect* being so intimate that we cannot think of the one without thinking of the other. A *consequence*, on the other hand, may be either casual or natural; it is that on which we can calculate.

Effective, *adj.*, having the power to effect; producing effect.

Syn. : effectual, efficient, efficacious.

Ant. : weak, futile, inoperative, nugatory.

Syn. dis. : An end or result is *effectual*, the means are *efficacious*. *Efficient* is actively operative, and is used of persons, of things, and of causes, in a philosophical sense, as 'an *efficient* cause,' 'an *efficient* officer.' *Effective* is producing a decided effect, as 'an *effective* remedy,' 'an *effective* speech.' *Effectual* is finally effective, or producing, not effect generally, but the desired effect in such a way as to leave nothing to be done. *Efficacious* is possessing the quality of being effective, which is latent in the thing until it is put into operation. It is not employed of persons.

Eligible, *adj.*, fit or deserving to be chosen.

Syn. : desirable, preferable.

Ant. : worthless, ineligible, undesirable.

Syn. dis. : *Eligible* means primarily worthy of being or qualified to be, chosen; it denotes, therefore, an alternative—that of choosing something else, or not choosing this. *Desirable* is of wider application, and conveys no idea of comparison or selection. *Preferable* is that which is comparatively *desirable* or specifically *eligible*. What is *eligible* is desirable in itself, what is *preferable* is more desirable than another. There may be many *eligible* situations out of which perhaps there is but one *preferable*: of persons, however, we say rather that they are *eligible* to an office than *preferable*.

Elocution, *n.*, the management and quality of the voice in the utterance or delivery of words.

Syn. : eloquence, oratory, rhetoric, declamation.

Syn. dis. : *Elocution* turns more upon the accessory graces of speaking in public, as intonation, gesture, and delivery in general; *eloquence* on the matter, and the natural gifts or the attainments of the speaker. *Oratory* comprehends both the art and the practice of the orator, and, in an extended sense, the combined productions of the orators, as 'the oratory of Greece and Rome.' *Rhetoric* is strictly the theory or science of which oratory is the practice. By poetic license, we sometimes speak of *eloquence* in a mute sense, as 'the *silent eloquence* of a look.'

Envious, *adj.*, feeling uneasiness at the superiority or happiness of another; full of or infected with envy.

Syn. : invidious, jealous, suspicious.

Ant. : unselfish, trusting, disinterested.

Syn. dis. : *Invidious* signifies looking at with an evil eye; *envious* is literally only a variation of *invidious*, which, in its common acceptation, signifies causing ill-will; while *envious* signifies having ill-will. *Jealous* is a feeling of envy mixed with rivalry: we are jealous, not only of the actual but the possible, whence the alliance between *jealousy* and *suspicion*. The latter term relates more commonly to thoughts of the character, conduct, and designs of other persons, and wears an inauspicious or unfavorable air.

Equivocate, *v.*, to make use of expressions admitting of a two-fold interpretation.

Syn. : prevaricate, evade, quibble, shuffle.

Syn. dis. : These words designate an artful mode of escaping the scrutiny of an inquirer. We *evade* by artfully turning the subject or calling off the attention of the inquirer; we *equivocate* by the use of *equivocal* or ambiguous expressions; we *prevaricate* by the use of loose or indefinite statements, *shuffling* or *quibbling* so as to avoid disclosing the truth.

Error, *n.*, a deviation from truth; involuntarily wandering from the truth.

Syn. : mistake, blunder.

Ant. : truth, accuracy, correctness.

Syn. dis. : *Error*, in its universal sense, is the general term, since every deviation from what is right, and, we may add, from what is true, just or accurate, in rational agents is termed *error*, which is strictly opposed to truth. A *mistake* is an error committed under a misapprehension or misconception of the nature of a case. An *error* may be from absence of knowledge; a *mistake* is from insufficient or false observation. *Blunder* is a practical error of a peculiarly gross or awkward kind, committed through gross or glaring ignorance, heedlessness, or awkwardness. *Mistake* is an error of choice; *blunder*, an error of action.

Essay, *n.*, in literature, a written composition or disquisition upon some particular point or topic, less formal than a treatise.

Syn. : treatise, dissertation, tract, monograph.

Syn. dis. : *Essay* is a modest term to express an author's attempt to illustrate some point of knowlege or learning by general thoughts upon it. It is tentative rather than exhaustive or scientific. A *treatise* is more formal and scientific than an *essay*. A *dissertation* is of an argumentative character, advancing views upon a subject capable of being regarded in different lights. A *tract* is of a simpler and shorter character, simply didactic, and commonly, as now used, of a religious nature. A *monograph*—the word is recent—is a treatise or description limited to a single being or object, or to a single branch of a subject.

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Evidence, *n.*, that which demonstrates or makes clear that a fact is so; that which makes evident or enables the mind to see truth.

Syn. : testimony, proof, illustration, sign.

Ant. : surmise, conjecture, disproof, fallacy.

Syn. dis. : The words *evidence* and *testimony*, though differing widely in meaning, are often used indiscriminately by careless speakers: *evidence* is that which *tends* to convince; *testimony* is that which is *intended* to convince. *Proof*, being a simpler word than *testimony* and *evidence*, is used more generally of the ordinary facts of life. *Testimony* is strictly the evidence of a witness given under oath; *evidence* is a term of higher dignity, and is applied to that which is moral and intellectual, as the *evidences* of Christianity; or the body of proofs, or alleged proofs, tending to establish facts in law.

Examination, *n.*, careful observation or inspection; scrutiny by study or experiment.

Syn. : search, inquiry, research, investigation, scrutiny.

Syn. dis. : *Examination* is the most general of these terms, which all agree in expressing an active effort to find out that which is unknown. An *examination* is made by the aid either of the senses or the understanding, the body or the mind; a *search* is principally a bodily action; the *inquiry* is mostly intellectual: an *examination* is made for the purpose of forming a judgment; a *search* is made for ascertaining a fact; an *inquiry* has much the same meaning. *Research* is laborious and sustained search after objects, not of physical, but of mental observation and knowledge; *investigation* is literally a mental tracking (of facts or appearances); *scrutiny* is confined to minute examination of what is known and present; *exploration* is to range in inquiry, or to direct one's search over an extensive area.

Exasperate, *v.*, to excite to great anger; to enrage or provoke greatly.

Syn. : aggravate, irritate, provoke, enrage, inflame, embitter.

Ant. : soothe, conciliate, assuage, alleviate, mitigate.

Syn. dis. : Both persons and feelings are said to be *exasperated*, but more commonly the former: it is to provoke bitter feeling, or to aggravate it. *Aggravate* is to make heavy, and so to make worse, to make less tolerable or excusable, and is properly applied only to evils or offences, though it has come, incorrectly, to be used in the sense of *irritate* and *exasperate*. In this latter sense it is to be presumed that the idea is to make to feel a burden or a grievance. To *irritate* is less strong than the other terms, and denotes the excitement of slight resentment against the cause or object. To *provoke* is stronger, and expresses the rousing of a feeling of decided anger and strong resentment by injury or insult, such as naturally tends to active retaliation. To *exasperate* is stronger still, and denotes a provocation to unrestrained anger or resentment, based upon a determined ill-will.

Exceed, *v.*, to pass or go beyond; to surpass.

Syn. : excel, outdo, transcend, surpass.

Syn. dis: To *exceed* is a relative term, implying some limit, measure or quantity already existing: in its limited acceptation, it implies no moral desert; *surpass* and *excel* are always taken in a good sense. It is not so much persons as things which *exceed;* both persons and things *surpass;* persons only *excel*. *Transcend* is to excel in a signal manner, soaring, as it were, aloft, and surmounting all barriers. *Outdo* is a simple Saxon compound for the Latin or French *surpass*. It is accordingly a familiar term, with a familiar application; hence, it has sometimes the undignified force of to get the better of another in no very honorable way, as a synonym of *outwit*. To *outdo* is simply to do something better than another, and to reap some personal advantage by the fact.

Excite, *v.*, to call into action; to rouse, to animate.

Syn. : rouse or arouse, incite, awaken, stimulate.

Ant. : allay, quiet, appease, soothe, pacify.

Syn. dis. : To *excite* is said more particularly of the inward feelings; *incite* is said of the external actions. To *excite* is to call into greater activity what before existed in a calm or calmer state, or to arouse to an active state faculties or powers which before were dormant: the term is also used of purely physical action. *Awaken* is to rouse from a state of sleep, or, analogously, to stir up anything that has lain quiet; *rouse* is to awaken in a sudden or startling manner. To *incite* is to excite to a specified act or end which the inciter has in view; to *stimulate* is to spur into activity (*stimulus*, a spur) and to a certain end.

Excuse, *v.*, to overlook on giving an explanation or apology.

Syn. : pardon, forgive, acquit, remit, exculpate, condone.

Ant. : charge, condemn, accuse.

Syn. dis. : We *excuse* whenever we exempt from the imputation of blame: when used reflectively it sometimes means no more than to decline, or to take such exemption to oneself. We *excuse* a small fault; we *pardon* a great fault or a crime; we *excuse* commonly what relates to ourselves; we *pardon* offences against rule, law, or morals. *Forgive* differs from both in relating only to offences against oneself. Omissions and neglects or slight commissions may be *excused;* graver offences and crimes *pardoned;* personal insults and injuries *forgiven*. The term *condone* implies the forgiveness or overlooking of an offence or offences by outward acts; in the law, the term has special force as a bar to action in suits for divorce.

Expedient, *n.*, that which serves to promote or help forward any end or purpose.

Syn. : resource, shift, contrivance, resort.

Syn. dis. : An *expedient* is a contrivance more or less adequate, but irregular, and sought for by tact and adaptation to the peculiar circumstances of the case. It is a kind of unauthorized substitute for more recognized modes of doing things. A *shift* is an expedient which does not profess to be more than temporary and very imperfect, a mere evasion of difficulty. *Makeshift* expresses this idea best. A *resource* is that to which one resorts: it is often, therefore, that on which the others are based. So it may be a test of skill in contrivance to find an adequate expedient in limited resources. *Shift* usually relates to objects trivial and external, *contrivance* to matters of more importance, and *expedient* to those even of the highest.

SCIENCE OF FAMILIAR THINGS:

VIII.—EXPERIMENTS WITH HEAT.—SPECIFIC HEAT

A BOTTLE of hot water will retain its heat, as every nurse knows, longer than a hot flat-iron or a hot brick. The reason is that, weight for weight and at the same temperatures, the water contains more heat than either the brick or the iron. To prove this fact, make the following experiments:—

Experiment 1.—Mix together a pint of ice-cold water, the temperature of which is 32 degrees Fahrenheit, and a pint of water at the boiling point, or at a temperature of 212 degrees. The temperature of the mixture will be found to be 122 degrees; that is, it will stand midway between the boiling and the freezing points. There has been a transfer of heat from the hot to the cold water; and the point to be noted is that the former in falling in temperature 90 degrees has given out heat sufficient to raise the temperature of an equal quantity of water the same number of degrees. Hence we may infer that a body in cooling a certain number of degrees gives off as much heat as is required to raise its temperature by the same amount, a point to be kept in mind in making the next experiment.

Experiment 2.—Take a strip of sheet iron, weighing, say, three ounces, make a loose roll of it, and suspend it by a thread in boiling water long enough to ensure its being heated to the same temperature as the water. Remove the roll from the hot water, and immerse it quickly in the same weight of ice-cold water, and introduce the bulb of a thermometer. Note the temperature of the water when it ceases to rise. It will be found to be about 50 degrees. The iron cools very much more than the water warms. The temperature of the water rises but 18 degrees, while that of the iron falls 162 degrees, or nine times as far. This means that the quantity of heat which will raise the temperature of a given weight of iron 162 degrees, and which the iron will give off in cooling, will raise that of the same weight of water only 18 degrees, or one-ninth as much. Experiment has shown that when bodies are heated their rise in temperature is nearly proportional to the quantity of heat applied. That is to say, if a certain quantity of heat will cause a rise of one degree, twice that quantity will raise the temperature two degrees; three times the quantity, three degrees, and so on. As the temperature rises, the quantity of heat necessary to add to it another degree increases slightly; but not enough to affect practically the law just stated. We can calculate, then, that to raise the temperature of our three ounces of water from 50 degrees to the boiling point would require nine times as much heat as was given off by the iron in cooling from that temperature, while the same quantity of heat applied to the iron would raise its temperature to between 1400 and 1500 degrees Fahrenheit, or to a red heat. From this experiment we may infer that a bottle of boiling-hot water contains as much heat as a red-hot mass of iron of the same weight.

This fact is somewhat surprising, but we may test the correctness of our conclusion roughly by heating a piece of iron to a cherry-red heat and cooling it in ice-water, taking care to have the weight of the water the same as that of the iron. The temperature of the water will rise to somewhere about 120 degrees, or to about the same point to which it would be raised by mixing with it the same weight of boiling water.

If, in making our second experiment, we had used any other substance than iron for heating the water, we should have reached a similar result, the figures only being different. Every substance, whether solid, liquid or gaseous, has a special susceptibility to heat, no two substances being affected by the application of a given quantity of heat, when equal weights or masses of them are taken, to the same extent. To put this fact into every-day phraseology, some substances are harder to heat than others. They are able to receive and to stow away within themselves a great quantity of heat without showing its effect so visibly by a rise of temperature as do other substances which are more sensitive to heat. Water is the hardest of all substances to heat, with the single exception of hydrogen gas. The easiest two are mercury and lead, which stand

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as regards their sensitiveness to heat on nearly the same footing. The same quantity of heat which will raise an ounce of water from the freezing to the boiling point, will raise the temperature of about thirty ounces of mercury or lead, nine ounces of iron, eleven ounces of copper, sixteen ounces of silver, through the same number of degrees.

This is one way of stating the facts in these cases. Scientists have a different and, for the purpose of tabulation, a more convenient way of saying the same thing. Taking as a unit for measuring heat the quantity required for raising the temperature of a given weight of ice-cold water,—as one pound or one gramme, —one degree, they have determined experimentally the fractional part of this unit of heat required for raising the same weight of any other substance one degree, and this fraction, written decimally, is known as the *specific heat* of that substance. Below are given, for the purpose of illustration, the specific heats of a few of the most common substances:—

Water (the Standard)	1.0000
Aluminium	0.2122
Carbon	0.1935
Copper	0.0933
Ice	0.5040
Iron	0.1124
Lead	0.0315
Mercury	0.0319
Silver	0.0559
Zinc	0.0935

One or two points in this short list are worth noting. Of the metals aluminium is the hardest to heat. It requires about one-fifth as much heat—0.2122—to raise the temperature of a given weight of it one degree as to raise that of the same weight of water to the same extent. Ice—below the freezing point*—heats twice as fast as water, and this is true also of steam, approximately, its specific heat being 0.4750.

The great capacity of water and steam for heat—the fact that a given quantity of either will hold a much larger amount of heat at a conveniently low temperature than will the same quantity of any other substance—renders them peculiarly fitted for the purpose of heating buildings, not to speak of the ease with which they can be conducted to the various parts of a building. On a far grander scale we may see this same peculiarity of water utilized by nature for tempering climate. The waters of the ocean absorb during the summer a vast quantity of heat, without, however, showing any great rise of temperature, and during the winter this heat is given out slowly and serves to warm the air. This is one cause of the absence of extremes in an island climate.

GEO. SENECA JONES.

* When a mass of ice has been brought by heat to the melting point—32 degrees Fahrenheit—its temperature ceases to rise. During the process of melting, though the ice and the resulting water continue to receive heat, the temperature of both remains constant at 32 degrees. What becomes of the heat which at this time is put into them? The answer is that it remains in the water. This heat is required to counterbalance the mutual attractions of the molecules of ice—the attraction which the molecules of every solid have for one another—and thus give them that freedom of movement which characterizes the liquid state of matter. This heat which is necessary for maintaining the liquid state of any substance, and without which it would become a solid, and which does not affect the temperature of the substance, is called *latent heat*, that is, concealed heat. When a liquid passes into the gaseous state, a like phenomenon is presented; heat is consumed without any resulting rise of temperature. Gases, as well as liquids, contain latent heat—heat which does not affect their temperatures, but serves only to keep them in the gaseous state—which is surrendered when they pass, the one from the gaseous to the liquid, the other from the liquid to the solid state.

A CORRESPONDENT'S QUESTION

Q.—If a hole passed through the centre of the earth, and a cannon ball were dropped in at one end, would not the force of inertia send it to the other end, if not beyond, or would the law of gravitation make it return to the centre, and would it retain itself there *without support?*

CONSTANT READER.

Ans.—In about one hour and twenty minutes after the ball, in the case supposed, had disappeared down the hole, it would return to the starting-point, having twice traversed the diameter of the earth. If left to follow its own inclination, it would at once drop back into the hole and would perform the feat again; and it would continue thus to travel to and fro through the hole, from end to end, forever.

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This is assuming that the ball were acted upon by no force other than that of gravity. If it encountered resistance, say that of air, it would finally come to rest at the earth's centre, and there it would remain, without visible support, being attracted by the earth's mass with equal force in every direction.

That this would be the result will become apparent upon examining the circumstances of the case. To begin with, there can be no question that the ball would fall to the earth's centre. The force which drew it downward would not be a constant one, however, but one continually lessening in intensity until, at the earth's centre, it became *nil*. The reason of this is that when the ball was below the earth's surface the portion of the earth's mass which lay above it would attract it upward, and only the portion which lay below it — that is, below a plane passing through it perpendicular to the direction of its fall — would attract it downward. The relative intensities of these two attracting forces can be calculated for any given position of the ball. The force which would be efficient for drawing the ball downward would be, of course, their difference. Without attempting to give here the demonstration, the simple fact may be stated that at every point in its descent the ball would be pulled downward by a force proportional to its distance from the earth's centre. At the start the whole force of gravity would act in a downward direction, giving to the ball an acceleration of thirty-two feet a second. When it had reached a point midway between the earth's surface and its centre, the acceleration would be sixteen feet a second. At three-quarters of the way down it would be reduced to eight feet a second, and at the centre it would become zero.

The ball would descend with accelerated velocity and would reach the earth's centre with a velocity of about five miles a second. Its momentum would carry it past this point, and its course would then become one of ascent — from the centre. Now would come in the principle that to stop a moving body requires the same expediture of force as that which gave it its motion. The only force operating in this case would be that of gravity, which would now pull at the upward-flying ball, to check its motion, with exactly the same intensity and under the same conditions as when it was drawing it downward. As a consequence, the ball would rise before it parted with all of its motion to a height exactly equal to that from which it fell. It would rise to the surface of the earth on the farther side, where it would rest for a brief space of time, and then, gravity still having a hold upon it, it would fall back towards the earth's centre, again shoot past that point, and, ascending on the other side, would return to the point from which it fell originally.

The movement of this ball is essentially the same as that of a swinging pendulum. Now, if a pendulum is struck dexterously when just at the end of its swing, in a direction perpendicular to the plane in which it swings, it will be set to swinging in two ways simultaneously and its visible path will be an ellipse, or, if the blow is just sufficient to make it swing in the new direction to the same extent as in the first, the path will be a circle. This ellipse or circle will be described by the bob of the pendulum in the same time as it requires for making one complete oscillation. Similarly our cannon ball would make its double passage through the earth in the same time as it would take in circling round the earth, just clear of its surface, as a satellite. To escape falling to the earth, it would need to travel at the rate of a little more than five miles a second, and the period of its revolution round the earth would be one hour and twenty minutes, very nearly. G. S. J.

HOW WORRY AFFECTS THE BRAIN

MODERN science has brought to light nothing more curiously interesting than the fact that worry will kill. More remarkable still, it has been able to determine, from recent discoveries, just how worry does kill.

It is believed by many scientists who have followed most carefully the growth of the science of brain diseases, remarks a pharmaceutical journal, that scores of the deaths set down to other causes are due to worry, and that alone. The theory is a simple one — so simple that

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any one can readily understand it. Briefly put, it amounts to this: Worry injures beyond repair certain cells of the brain; and the brain being the nutritive centre of the body, the other organs become gradually injured, and when some disease of these organs, or a combination of them, arises, death finally ensues.

Thus does worry kill. Insidiously, like many another disease, it creeps upon the brain in the form of a single, constant, never-lost idea; and as the dropping of water over a period of years will wear a groove in a stone, so does worry gradually, imperceptibly, but no less surely, destroy the brain cells that lead all the rest — that are, so to speak, the commanding officers of mental power, health and motion.

Worry, to make the theory still stronger, is an irritant at certain points, which produces little harm if it comes at intervals or irregularly. Occasional worrying of the system the brain can cope with, but the iteration and reiteration of one idea of a disquieting sort the cells of the brain are not proof against. It is as if the skull were laid bare and the surface of the brain struck lightly with a hammer every few seconds, with mechanical precision, with never a sign of a "let up" or the failure of a stroke.

Just in this way does the annoying idea, the maddening thought that will not be done away with, strike or fall upon certain nerve cells, never ceasing, and week by week diminishing the vitality of these delicate organisms that are so minute that they can only be seen under the microscope.

NOISE AS A DANGER SIGNAL.

NOISE, says the "American Machinist," is, like dirt, a nuisance. Much noise, like much dirt, is a great nuisance. As dirt is matter out of place, so noise is sound out of place. Dirt demands removal, and so is the great promoter of cleanliness. Noise is perhaps more insistent than dirt, and so has also its beneficent function, especially in the running of machinery. For many of the improvements and much of the perfection of modern machinery, noise only is to be thanked. Noise has done and is constantly doing much for lubrication, from the squeaking wheel-barrow and the baby carriage to the line shaft or the loose pulley in the shop, and so clear to the top. Noise has saved the lives of half the steam-engines and of many engineers.

When things are running all right there will be sounds, generally rhythmical, and therefore more or less musical, but never noise. As soon as things go wrong, there is noise at once. The knock in the cylinder must be attended to or the head flies out. There are other noises about an engine which tell an engineer at once of minor disarrangements and give the opportunity of correction before wear or accident occurs. A deaf engineer would necessarily be an almost worthless and an unsafe one. Probably many persons do not appreciate the value of good hearing to an engineer. It is probable that on our railroads there should be tests for hearing as well as for sight, although we have not heard of them. Sound is constantly telling the stationary engineer of the condition of his engine, and noise tells of its maladjustment or derangement. Noise tells of the unwelcome presence of water in pipes and valve chests, as well as in the cylinder, of the incorrect action of valves, of abnormal changes of speed, of defective lubrication anywhere, of the displacement and rubbing of parts, of nuts or screws working loose, of connections or bearings that need taking up. An engineer that can hear noises in his engine room and be content under their continuance should be promoted to the outside of the door.

An ear sensitive to noise, with a proper detestation of it, is one good qualification for a foreman or superintendent. Noise means at least discomfort, makes men nervous and irritable, and will never allow them to do their best. We worked once for a long time contiguous to some rattling gearing, and we know what we are talking about. We passed through a foundry the other day where they had a very noisy power-driven sand shifter at work which must have had anything but a good effect on the men, and certainly did not increase the amount of work done, and we could not help wondering how the powers that be could permit such a nuisance. There are many preventable noises that might be stopped.

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QUESTION DEPARTMENT

OF THE HOME UNIVERSITY LEAGUE

For the benefit of those whose acquaintance with the Question Department begins with this issue, it may be well to say that SELF CULTURE readers are expected to look up in the Encyclopædia Britannica each day the answer to the question given for that day. This will seldom require more than one hour, but in the event that one evening's leisure does not suffice, it will be easy to continue the investigation the following evening while the subject is still fresh in the reader's mind. The conscientious pursuit of the home study involved in this department will lead to the possession of a large and varied stock of general information.

To vary the interest in these series of questions, as well as to increase the educational benefits arising from their daily study in tracing them to the sources of the history, it is designed, for a while, to group the questions under specific countries, and to withhold reference to the pages in the Britannica, or in the New Supplement thereto, where the answers may be sought. In the present series of questions (for the month of December), it may suffice to say that answers will be found either under the general article on France, in the E. B., or under the historical personages or specific events referred to in the questions.—ED. S. C.

FRANCE AND FRENCH HISTORY

Dec. 1. France has been a Republic since the overthrow of Napoleon III. Give the date and cause of the Emperor's overthrow.

Dec. 2. In whom, and in what bodies, does the present Constitution vest the Executive and Legislative power?

Dec. 3. Give the area, in English miles, of France, and its present population.

Dec. 4. What is the present effective strength of the French army? What the strength (Jan. 1896) of the French navy? *

Dec. 5. Give the length, in inches, of the French *mètre*, and the equivalent value of the *franc*.

Dec. 6. Into how many administrative departments is the France of to-day divided?

Dec. 7. Name the chief articles of French commerce.

Dec. 8. When was Paris made the capital of all France?

Dec. 9. Give the Roman name applied to France in Cæsar's day, and state who were the Franks who conquered the country in the fifth century.

Dec. 10. Give the periods of the régime of Charles Martel, mayor of the Palace, who founded the Carlovingian dynasty.

Dec. 11. Relate what you know of Charlemagne and his period. When did he become King of the Franks, and when was he crowned Emperor of the West?

Dec. 12. When did the Northmen (Normans) become permanent settlers in France?

Dec. 13. Under whom did the Feudal Monarchy in France have its rise?

Dec. 14. What was the influence on France of the Crusades?

Dec. 15. Give the date of the English invasion of France, and state when Calais was taken by Edward III.

Dec. 16. Cite the chief events of the Hundred Years' War.

Dec. 17. Tell what you can about Joan of Arc and her deeds.

Dec. 18. What was the character and aims of Louis XI.?

Dec. 19. Relate what you know of the religious wars of the sixteenth century, and give the date of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Dec. 20. Under what circumstances did Henry of Navarre become King, and in what great battle did he defeat the Holy Catholic League?

Dec. 21. What was the social condition of France under the regency of Marie de Medicis?

Dec. 22. What distractions in the Kingdom brought Cardinal Richelieu into power?

Dec. 23. Who was Louis XIV.'s great finance minister?

Dec. 24. What was the immediate cause of the great exodus of the French Protestants (the Huguenots), at the close of the seventeenth century?

Dec. 25. In what cause was the battle of Blenheim (Höchstädt) fought? State the approximate losses of the Allies, and also the losses of the French and Bavarians.

Dec. 26. Under what sinister feminine influences did Louis XV. fall?

Dec. 27. What was the condition of the French people on the eve of the Revolution?

Dec. 28. State what you know of Turgot, Necker, Mirabeau, Talleyrand, Guizot, and Thiers.

Dec. 29. What brought Charlotte Corday (D'Armans) to the block? Justify the epithets applied to her as "the angel of assassination" and "the Joan of Arc of the Revolution."

Dec. 30. Who were the parents and who the husband of Marie Antoinette, and against what excesses, in the turmoil of the time, did she disastrously protest?

Dec. 31. What immediately led to the restoration of the Bourbons?

* For answers to some of the above questions that refer to the recent history of France, it will be necessary to consult the New Supplement to the E. B., in 5 volumes [The Werner Company], 1897.

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

VOL. VI JANUARY, 1898 No. 4

SOME NOTABLE WOMEN OF THE CENTURY:

I.—MARY SOMERVILLE, THE SCIENTIST*

A QUARTER of a century has passed since the death of Mary Somerville. While yet living kings and queens acknowledged their indebtedness to her, sculptors wrought her form in marble, artists painted her picture, poets addressed sonnets to her, and every society for the diffusion of useful knowledge then existing made her its honorary member. We may more fully appreciate the significance of these facts if we consider the fermentation of new ideas in the closing years of the eighteenth century. It was then that England was pronounced the first maritime and colonial power in the world. In the lessening power of great families and in the increase of wealth among the industrial classes there was a growing reverence for mental power that became the inspiration of science and of literature. A hundred years earlier, Sir Isaac Newton ceased to be a child playing on the shore, and set sail on that boundless ocean of truth which during his life had lain unexplored before him. Later on, Sir William Herschel swept the heavens with his telescope in search of new worlds; later still, his son, Sir John Herschel, continued the observations and formulated the valuable data that his father had so ably furnished.

It is notably true of this period that from scores of illustrious names the various seats of learning received new life and became conscious of an inspiration vastly greater than any they had hitherto been able to bestow. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge, each with its score of colleges, growing richer in facilities with every generation, were now the crowning glory of civilization, and there was no more alluring path to an honorable consideration than that by which the stores of useful knowledge were increased or its greater diffusion secured.

Then, as now, boys and girls born of the same parents, were seated at the same table, permitted to eat of the same food, and to hear the same conversation. They were separated, however, when they went to school. For the boy there was a course of study preparatory to the broader one of the universities. When after a term of years he returned to his family, if in any degree worthy of his advantages, his conversation soon betrayed the fact that to him the doors to learning were all swung open. He could enter and wander at will. Did he desire to acquaint himself with those civilizations that flourished and declined before his day, his knowledge of ancient languages made such a pursuit entirely practicable. If his taste led him to seek the controlling thought in modern literature, again his acquaintance with languages opened the door. All trophies of scientific investigation were laid at his feet. If he desired to watch the stars in their onward courses, or to wrest from the rock the secret of its age or birth, every available aid was placed at his disposal.

The prevailing sentiment regarding woman's development at this time is dutifully reflected by Mrs. Anna Letitia Barbauld, in a letter written to her niece.

*See sketch (brief facts in Mary Somerville's life) in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XXII, page 260.

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"The line of separation," she writes, "between the studies of a young man and a young woman is this: A woman is excused from all professional knowledge. Men study in order to qualify themselves for the law, for physic, for various departments in political life, for instructing others from the pulpit or professor's chair. These all require a great deal of severe study and technical knowledge, much of which is in no wise valuable in itself, but as a means to that particular profession. Now, as a woman can never be called to any of these professions, it is evident that you have nothing to do with such studies. A woman is not expected to understand the mysteries of politics because she is not called to govern. She is not required to know anatomy because she is not to perform surgical operations; she need not embarrass herself with theological knowledge because she will neither be called upon to make or explain creeds.

"A woman should have such a tincture of general knowledge as to be able to engage gracefully in conversation. In no subject is she required to be deep, of none should she be ignorant. If she knows not enough to speak well she should at least know enough to keep from speaking at all, and the modesty which prevents an unnecessary display of what she does know will cause it to be supposed that her knowledge is greater than it is. As she will never obtrude her knowledge, none will ever be sensible of any deficiency in it, and her silence will seem to proceed from discretion rather than from a want of information."

It is proper to state, in passing, that Mrs. Barbauld could not so clearly have stated the popular idea of woman's education had she not herself overstepped the boundaries she prescribes. She was an excellent classical scholar, but dared not counsel her niece to a like disregard of prevailing sentiment; hence, her letter, presenting as it does the compromise between this sentiment and a personal desire for intelligence, affords as perfect a key to the spirit of the time as we can hope to find.

In this whirl of contending influences began the life of Mary, daughter of Admiral Sir William Fairfax. She was born at Jedburgh, Scotland, in the year 1780, and disclosed at an early age a hunger for knowledge that changed the whole direction of her life and made her the most remarkable woman of her time.

The memory of days which are in any respect remarkable acquires peculiar charm when viewed through the perspective of quiet years, and one experiences a unique pleasure in reading the personal recollections of this gifted woman. We learn how, as a child, she wandered along the seashore, collecting shells, pebbles and flowers; how she passed evenings in gazing at the starlit heavens; how she amused herself in a garden frequented by birds, observing them until their habits were familiar to her. The first ten years of her life were passed without the aid of books — unless we except the book of nature, whose leaves she was already beginning to turn.

This excellent foundation for the superstructure of wisdom seems to have been most unwittingly laid, and was in fact the result of neglect rather than prevision. Suddenly, however, her father awoke to a consciousness of the fact that a girl should at least know how to read and write and keep accounts, and Mary was sent away to school.

We learn from her record how, though perfectly erect and well formed, she was enclosed in stiff stays, with a steel busk in front, while bands drew her shoulder blades back until they met, and how another steel rod with a semicircle which passed under the chin was clasped to the busk in her stays. In this constrained attitude she had to prepare her lessons, and the chief task given her was to "learn by heart" daily a page of Johnson's Dictionary. She returned to her home at the age of eleven, and, aside from instruction in music, seems to have been left to her own devices. When thirteen years old, she for the first time met with a friend who encouraged and gave direction to her love for study.

A little later, while out in company with her mother, she met a lady who tried to interest her in some manner of fancy work. While turning the leaves of a book of designs her eye caught sight of what appeared to be an arithmetical question, but, on turning the page, she found strange-looking lines mixed with letters, chiefly x's and y's: Said her friend, replying to her eager inquiry: "It is a kind of arithmetic; they call it algebra. I can tell you nothing about it."

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Returning home she began a search for the meaning of the new word. "You should study Euclid's Elements of Geometry," said a timely friend, "the foundation not only of perspective but of astronomy and all mechanical science." Here was the long sought steppingstone; but go to a bookseller and ask for Euclid? Impossible! She did secure the book, however, through the kindness of her brother's tutor. To him she demonstrated a few problems and then continued the study alone. At this time she rose early, practiced and painted through the leisure hours of the day, and sat up very late studying geometry. When, upon the servant's informing her mother of the way she spent a large part of her nights, and the latter, in consequence, withdrew her stock of candles, Mary, depending on her memory, demonstrated a certain number of problems each day, between night and morning, until she could readily master them all.

In this manner passed her childhood and youth. It was not until after the death of her first husband, Samuel Greig, that she found freedom to pursue her favorite studies.

It was during her widowhood, and when she was about thirty-two years of age, that she found herself for the first time the possessor of a small library of scientific works. "I could hardly believe," she says, "that I possessed such a treasure, when I looked back to the day on which I first saw that mysterious word 'algebra' and remembered the long course of years during which I had persevered almost without hope."

It was shortly after her marriage with Dr. Somerville that she made the acquaintance of that eminent orator, statesman, scientist and philosopher, Henry Brougham, who became England's Lord High Chancellor. She was now one of a circle of devotees who dared to worship openly at the shrine before which she had so long bowed in secret. The joy which she had felt in work which brought its own reward was now reflected from other eyes. One of the supreme moments of her life must have been that which brought to her Lord Brougham's letter requesting her to translate and illustrate Laplace's celebrated work, *Mécanique Céleste*.

"It surprised me," she says, "beyond expression. I thought Lord Brougham must have been mistaken with regard to my acquirements and naturally concluded that my self-acquired knowledge was so inferior to that of the men who had been educated in our universities that it would be the height of presumption for me to write on such a subject."

"The kind of thing wanted," said Lord Brougham in his letter, "is such a description of that divine work as will both explain to the unlearned the sort of thing it is, the plan, the vast merit, the wonderful truths unfolded or methodized, and the calculus by which this is accomplished, and which will also give a somewhat deeper insight to the initiated. No one without trying can conceive how far we may carry the ignorant reader into an understanding of the depths of science. In England there are not now twenty people who know this great work except by name; and not one hundred who know it even by name. My firm belief is that Mrs. Somerville could add two ciphers to each of those figures."

She accepted the task with the understanding that in case of failure the manuscript was to be put into the fire.

"Thus, suddenly and unexpectedly," she says, "the whole character and course of my future life was changed. I rose early and made such arrangements with regard to my children and family affairs that I had time to write afterward, not, however, without many interruptions. I was always supposed to be at home, and often, when in the midst of a difficult problem, someone would enter saying, 'I have come to spend a few hours with you.' Frequently I hid my papers as the bell announced a visitor, lest anyone should discover my secret."

From this point the stream of her life gathers breadth and depth, and sweeps on with the strong, calm current of recognized power. Her work was a great success and it is interesting to note her almost childlike surprise and pleasure when she learned that it was to be introduced as a text-book in Cambridge University. All reviews were favorable. She received congratulatory letters from many men of science. Among these were Sir John Herschel, Henry Hallam, Dr. Whewell, of Cambridge, and many others who afterward became her warm friends. Miss Joanna Baillie says, in a characteristic letter: "You have done

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more to remove the light estimation in which women have been held than have the whole sisterhood of poetical damsels and novel-writing dames."

Dr. Whewell, of "Inductive Science" fame, sent her the following sonnet: —

To Mrs. Somerville: on her "Mécanique Céleste."

"Lady, it was the wont in earlier days,
When some fair volume from a valued pen,
Long looked for, came at last, that grateful men
Hailed its forthcoming in complacent lays,
As if the muse would gladly haste to praise
That which her mother, memory, long should keep
Among her treasures. Shall such usage sleep
With us, who feel too slight the common phrase
For our pleased thoughts of you, when thus we find
That dark, to you seems bright; perplexed, seems plain;
Seen in the depths of a pellucid mind
Full of clear thought, pure from the ill and vain
That cloud the inward light: an honored name
Be yours; and peace of heart grow with your growing fame."

Her next published work, "On the Connection of the Physical Sciences," appeared a few years later and thenceforward honors crowded thick upon her. Wherever she went wise men and intelligent women gathered to pay her homage. The relatives who had so severely criticized her in earlier years were now loud in her praise.

In a letter from Maria Edgeworth we have a pleasant picture of her at this time. "Mrs. Somerville," she writes, "is little, slightly made, with fairish hair, pink color, small, grey, intelligent eyes, very pleasing countenance, soft voice, strong, but well-bred Scotch accent." We are told that she was profoundly and sincerely religious, having a solemn and deep-rooted faith which influenced every thought and regulated every action of her life. "Nothing," Mrs. Somerville says, "has afforded me so convincing a proof of the unity of the Deity as have these purely mental conceptions of numerical and mathematical science which have by slow degrees been vouchsafed to man, and are still granted in these later times by the differential calculus, now superseded by the higher algebra, all of which must have existed in that sublimely omniscient mind from eternity. Many of our friends had very decided and various opinions; but my husband and I never entered into controversy; we had too high a regard for liberty of conscience to interfere with anyone's opinion; so we lived on terms of sincere friendship and love with persons who differed essentially from us in religious views, and in all the books I have written I have confined myself strictly and entirely to scientific subjects, although my religious opinions are very decided."

The theories of modern science she welcomed as quite in accordance with her religious views, believing that the Creator has from the first, and invariably, acted according to a system of harmonious laws, some of which we are beginning faintly to recognize, others which will be discovered in time, while many must remain a mystery to man while he inhabits this planet.

When about to begin the work by which she is probably most widely known, her "Physical Geography," Dr. Somerville was ordered to a warmer climate for the benefit of his health. They went to Rome, where she could have the advantage of access to the large libraries and there she began her work. It was her habit to allow nothing to interfere with its prosecution during the morning hours; later she gave herself heartily to any plan for the day's enjoyment, and whether visiting antiquities, art galleries, making excursions about the neighborhood or going with some friend to paint on the Campagna, she was always thoroughly alive, thoroughly happy. Indeed, her sensitiveness to the grand and beautiful both in nature and in art was something more real and complete than is found in the ordinary mind. To such a soul

"Nothing is small, no lily-muffled
Hum of summer bee
But finds some coupling
With the spinning stars."

The letters which picture her life during its last half-century abound with expressions of her enjoyment of everything in which a human being can worthily find happiness. Of friends, there was the intellectual royalty of every land with whom she was in constant communion. She was interested in every department of science and in the development of any or every idea which had for its object the welfare of humanity.

During her residence in Italy she made some curious experiments testing the effect of the solar spectrum on juices of plants and other substances. She sent an account of them to her friend, Sir John

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Herschel, and he in reply sent the following letter:

"My Dear Mrs. Somerville:—

I cannot express to you the pleasure I experienced from the receipt of your letter and the perusal of the elegant experiments it relates. These appear to me of the highest interest, and show what I always suspected, that there is a world of wonders awaiting disclosure in the solar spectrum. . . . Pray go on with these delightful experiments. Now, I am going to take a liberty, and that is to communicate your results to the Royal Society. You may be very sure I would not do this if I thought they were not intrinsically worthy of such record, etc."

It was still later in her life that the use of the microscope opened to her a new field for research, a new world of thought. She was now eighty-two years of age, very deaf, she admits, and with shaking hands, still her eyesight was such that she could "thread the finest needle or read the finest print." And though she had but little hope of living until it should be finished, she began another great work which was published under the name of "Molecular and Microscopic Science."

There are few intellectual triumphs to compare with this. A triumph which surmounted the prejudices of her time against woman's education, the prejudices of all times—except our own—against woman as a scientist, and, lastly, the physical and mental infirmities of age.

She records with childlike sincerity her pleasure, at the recognition and honors she received during her later years, in a letter to her son, written in her eighty-fifth year. She says: "The Italian Society of Natural History have just held their meeting here—seventy members present, Italian, French and German. I was chosen an associate by acclamation. . . . The president came for me and all rose as I entered, and every attention was shown me."

An anonymous friend who visited her in 1870, remarks: "It was her ninetieth birthday when I first saw her; she put aside the English newspaper as I approached, and, after a kind greeting, settled down for a gossip. Her ninety years seemed to have withered her frame; but it was wiry and firm still. Her eyes were keen, her voice clear, only her hearing was impaired. Still it was quite possible to talk with her and it was easy to make her talk more than listen. . . . The words and thoughts were as fresh and current as those of the clever young wife of a clever young member of Parliament of to-day. Of course she was most interesting when she came to talk of herself. 'I do not apologize for talking of myself,' she said, 'for it is always good for the young to hear that old age is not so terrible as they fear.

"'My life is a very placid one. I have my coffee early: from eight to twelve. I read or write in bed; then I rise and paint in my studio for an hour—that is all I can manage now! The afternoon is my time for rest; then comes dinner time, and after that I sit here and am glad to see any kind friends who may like to visit me.' Then she would explain what was the reading and writing she was engaged upon. She was correcting and adding to the first edition of 'Molecular and Microscopic Science:' 'Only putting it in order for my daughters to publish when a second edition is called for after my death. O, they are quite competent to do it,' she would say, with a smile; 'I took care they should be much better educated than I was. And I am reading a good deal now—reading Herodotus. I took him down from my shelves the other day—it was the first time I had tried Greek for fifty years—to see if I had forgotten the character. To my delight, I found I could read him and understand him quite easily. What a charming writer Herodotus is.'

The impression which Mrs. Somerville left upon one from this evening and several like it spent in her company, was that of a thoroughly harmonious character, 'widely sympathetic and intensely individual.' She had developed those two sides of her nature in the most complete way and the result was a perfectly tranquil old age."

In the closing pages of her "Personal Recollections," she says: "I regret that I shall not live to know the result of the expedient to determine the currents of the ocean, the distance of the Earth from the Sun as determined by the transits of Venus, and the source of the most renowned of rivers, the discovery of which will immortalize the name of Dr. Livingstone.

"I am now in my ninety-second year,

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still able to drive out for several hours. I read books on the higher Algebra four or five hours daily and solve the problems. Sometimes I find them difficult, but my old obstinacy remains, and if I do not succeed to-day, I attack them again to-morrow. I also enjoy the reading of new discoveries and theories in the scientific world.

"The blue-peter," she continues, "has been long flying at my foremast, and I must soon expect the signal for sailing. It is a solemn voyage but does not disturb my tranquillity. We are told of the infinite glories of a future state and I believe them, though incomprehensible to us; but as I do comprehend, in some degree at least, the exquisite loveliness of this visible world, I confess I shall be sorry to leave it. I shall regret the sky and the sea, with all their beautiful coloring, and the earth with its verdure and flowers."

To the last her fine intellect remained unclouded. She retained her habit of study to the latest day of her life, and the pursuit in which she had attained such eminence, mathematics, continued to disclose new beauties to her unfolding mind, even to the day of her death.

She fell asleep on the morning of November 29, 1872, and her mortal remains rest in the English Campo-Santo at Naples.

The keynote to this remarkable life was not ambition, nor was it the feverish search for something that might declare its possessor to be "cultured." Still less was it the more pathetic quest of the heart-hungry woman. Serenely happy in her father's home, she was deeply, devotedly so in the later relations of wife-hood and motherhood. It was the simple, honest desire to live in obedience to creative law. The infant plant unfolds its two, tiny leaves in a mute request for light. She did no less; she could do no more. Study, with her, was simply a means to an end. When an unknown tongue lay between her and some coveted information, she quietly sat down and mastered it. A langnage was a door beyond which lay the hidden treasure. It must be opened. To have considered herself learned because she had incidentally become acquainted with several tongues, would have been, to her, as absurd as fumbling aimlessly with the door knob instead of passing through. She had that large sympathy with nature which characterizes the growing mind, and hungered for the revelation which is ever seeking to disclose itself.

ADÉLE M. GARRIGUES.

ON READING

READING is not exclusively a modern accomplishment; yet reading was never so universal as it is to-day. Some, who are now living, remember the time when but few people could read and write, and in those days illiteracy was no disgrace. But there has been a great change, and, we think, for the better. Educational advantages have increased, books have multiplied, and the facilities for self-improvement are far more general. Illiteracy is still with us, but it is no longer the rule. Nor is it regarded in the same light that it once was. The illiterate man to-day is not only at a great disadvantage, but is actually looked down upon. Yet all who can read are not necessarily much in advance of those who cannot. The accomplishment is no advantage to a man unless he puts it to the best use. To learn to read and to form the habit of reading are not synonymous terms. Reading becomes a habit only when it is as necessary to our existence as eating and drinking. I always feel sorry for the young man or young woman who speaks slightingly of books, or who prefers loafing or gossiping to reading. The habitual reader always has an advantage over the casual reader. He is never at a loss for something to occupy his thoughts. His preference is expressed by the old English song, which everyone knows:—

"Oh for a book and a shady nook,
Either indoor or out."

To become absorbed in a good book or periodical is to become oblivious to one's surroundings and unconscious of the passing hours. Reading is a sort of magician, transporting you to a paradise in the midst of a desert or a noisy city, or to a palace in the haunts of poverty. The lover of good books can well-nigh annihilate space and defy public prejudices.

He is always in the best of company. He numbers among his friends the great of all ages, and they all talk to him without reserve. They are accessible to him day and night, and he can dismiss them when he wills without a word of apology. If he abuses them, they do not fly into a passion; if he plies them with hard questions they do not dismiss him with vague answers; and if he displays much ignorance, they do not laugh at him. He finds them always on their best behavior, and ever ready to conduct him to the treasure house of ideas.

If a reader chooses, however, he can surround himself with low and disagreeable people in books as well as in actual life. The habit of reading, while it implies a taste for books and periodicals, does not determine the nature of the taste. Some people congratulate themselves when their children take to reading. But they sometimes forget that a boy is not necessarily out of mischief when he is absorbed in a book. Much depends upon the character of the books and papers he reads. If he revels in such papers as "The Police News," "Detective on the Wing," and "The New York Family Story Paper;" or in such books as "Peck's Bad Boy," "New York Ned in California," "Deadwood Dick in Dead City," and "The Wild Man of the Mountain," he is in far worse business than if he slammed the doors, disarranged the rugs and mats, slid down the stair-rail, or went tearing over the carpet with his rough shoes. Indian hunters, desperadoes, highway robbers, pirates, runaway boys, snake charmers, gamblers, and tramps are no better company in papers and books than in everyday life. If reading serves only to introduce one into disreputable society, or to familiarize one with slang, cheating, and fighting, or inculcate wrong views of life, it were better that one remain forever an ignoramus. We should avoid the bad book or bad paper as we would a bad man or woman.

Never in the world's history were good books so plentiful and so cheap. If Solomon, thousands of years before the invention of the printing press, had reason to say that of the making of books there is no end, surely he would be overwhelmed by the enormous amount of reading-matter produced to-day. About twenty-five thousand books are published annually. Every town of any size boasts of one or more newspapers. Magazines are almost numberless. It is evident, therefore, that no one can read everything. We must follow the wise dictum: "Read everything of something and something of everything," within the limitations of reason.

Reading should never be an end in itself. It should never be aimless, or superficial, but always with some good purpose in view. Much of a professional man's reading is, of necessity, along the lines prescribed by his profession; but even he, to be eminently successful in life, must give some time to desultory reading. He must even read much along lines for which he naturally has no taste. Sometimes he should read with no other purpose in view than to amuse himself. The mind can not be "keyed up" to the highest pitch all the time. It needs rest and relaxation. An amusing anecdote or story is as necessary as sleep, and may be far more salutary than a dose of medicine. Still the chief motive in reading should not be amusement or recreation. Nor should it, indeed, be merely the acquirement of knowledge. It is very desirable that a man should be well-informed and be able to give an intelligent opinion on matters of vital importance to himself and others. Yet he should be something more than a walking encyclopædia.

The chief purpose of reading should be the development of a pure and noble character. It should touch all the springs of life and take hold of every fibre of our being. Character is the greatest thing in the world, and good reading is as essential to its growth as sunlight is to the development of plants. Culture is not to be despised, and refinement of taste is not to be depreciated, but both must be attended by the awakening of man's noblest aspirations and broadest sympathies, in order to justify the time given to reading. Our reading should make us dissatisfied with our present knowledge and attainments, and beget within us a worthy ambition to be and do our very best. With this end in view, every one must make his own selection from the almost endless list of books and periodicals at his command. It does not follow that because a book is good it is suitable to all. While one should devote some time to desultory reading, the bulk

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of one's reading should be in line with one's natural bent and vocation in life. Literature is broad enough to suit every kind of taste. Therefore, if a man is not suited, it must be largely his own fault.

Literary critics have given some valuable hints as to what one should read. Some have even gone so far as to give a list of "a hundred books" which, in their estimation, are the best in the world. With all respect to their culture and taste, however, we still claim that in the vast majority of cases the reader should make his own selection, aided by common sense and personal needs. Nor can any iron-clad rules be followed. Mr. Emerson meant well when, to enforce the dictum: "Be sure to read no mean books," he laid down the following rules: —

"1. Never read any book that is not a year old.

2. Never read any but famed books.

3. Never read any but what you like."

These rules, however, are not beyond criticism. If, for instance, no one should read a book until it was a year old, who would know anything about it? Do the contents of a book grow better or worse with age? How can a book become famous unless it is read? Is not reading the only test of a book's claim to public favor? Then I question the soundness of the second rule. The books which the critics recommend are not always the best books. Nor is the popularity of a book always the proof of its real value. Was "Trilby" a good book because it happened to please the critics and to have a wide sale? Was "Robert Elsmere" worthy of a permanent place in literature, because it had a short period of unmerited fame?

Furthermore, how little breadth of knowledge and depth of culture one would attain, by reading only what one likes. Some have no taste for good books; they, evidently, should read what they do not like. Taste for the higher must be acquired at the expense of the lower. Of course, there is truth in that couplet of Shakespeare: —

> "No profit goes where is no pleasure ta'en:
> In brief, sir, study what you most affect."

In literature, as in other matters, however, what is at first irksome at length becomes a pleasure. To elevate the taste is to find new sources of joy, as well as new avenues of soul-culture.

One's reading should embrace all the departments of literature. Most people, perhaps, need not be urged to read fiction. Novel-reading has, indeed, come to be a sort of mental dissipation, and many evil results are to be traced to it. I agree with a writer in the "Homiletic Review," that inordinate novel-reading weakens the intellect, deadens the feelings, and destroys the taste for more solid reading. It may be, also, that inordinate reading, even of the best novels, has much to do with the abnormal demand for sensationalism in pulpit and press, and with the presence of so much laxity in politics and religion. Yet, the novel has its place in literature, and its wholesale condemnation is not to be encouraged because its abuse is so general. A bad novel or story should never be read, but a good work of fiction is invaluable as a source of amusement and mental recreation. Since the advent of the historical novel, not a little instruction has also been imparted through fiction. Care should be taken, however, that the time given to novel-reading shall not encroach upon the necessary duties of life, or render solid reading impossible. The real business of life is not to seek amusement, but goodness and truth.

Many people read poetry with much benefit to themselves, while others find other departments of literature more fascinating and instructive. Perhaps, the sentimental trash and obscure effusions that, in these days, pass for poetry, are responsible for the fact that poetical works are not more widely read. True poetry, like pure fiction, has its mission. It is invaluable as a developer and quickener of the imagination, and, as an agent to stir the emotions, it is second only to music. To cultivate a taste for it, therefore, is to open avenues of joy and delight, without which, the fairyland of imaginative creation can never be entered. Then, the lover of poetry is in the best of company, for all poets, like Shakespeare and Milton, are at their best in the higher realms of the imagination, whatever be their character.

I have heard people say that they do not like history. This is unfortunate, for in history we again live over the past. We are part and parcel of bygone days. In ignoring the record of past events, we make a proper understanding of the forces which have made us what we are impossible. True patriotism feeds as

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much on the record of American progress as on the glory of present achievements. Not to follow the Pilgrim Fathers in their wandering and efforts to establish a free republic; not to fight again with the fathers of the nation the battles of freedom; not to agonize again with loyal minds and hearts over the difficult problems and cruel strifes which have marked the life of this nation, is to revel in ignorance and prejudice. Fuller was right: "History maketh a man to be old without either wrinkles or gray hair, privileging him with the experience of age without either the infirmities or the inconveniences thereof."

The reader of American history does well also to accompany Rawlinson, Gibbon, Hallam, Hume, Prescott, and other great historians in their tours of observation among the makers of universal history. Much is gained and nothing lost also by following in the train of Cook or Darwin, Irving or Ruskin, Stanley or Nansen, exploring new regions, mingling with strange peoples, viewing natural wonders, or studying architectural grandeur and beauty. Nor are the lives of great men without interest, seeing that they are inseparable from the fortunes and triumphs of the peoples to which they belonged. You may never be a Socrates, a Cæsar, a Luther, a Shakespeare, a Webster, a Beecher, or the equal of any other great man that has acted his part on the world's stage, but you ought to know the source of their power.

So far, I have said nothing about the perusal of scientific, philosophical, theological, and other works of an instructive character, simply because they do not belong to literature in its specific sense. These works, however, are very important and deserve the thoughtful attention of the general reader, as well as of the professional man. Indeed, I do not see how anyone can consider himself fully equipped for the struggle of life in this nineteenth century without as much knowledge of the elements of mental, moral, and social progress as he can master. Never before were the questions of science, philosophy, and religion so widely discussed and so impartially handled. Never before was the knowledge of things in their relation to God and man so widely diffused. Not only are there books without number, but the civilized world is literally flooded with papers and magazines. Much of the best literature first appears in our periodicals.

Yet, it may be a question of no little doubt whether our newspapers and magazines contain enough of general interest to warrant the time generally devoted to reading them. Everybody knows that the interests and events of contemporary life are not to be neglected in our eagerness to know the facts of ancient history. But, so far as observation goes, the danger in these rushing days does not lie in that direction. On the contrary, in too many cases, the reading is confined almost exclusively to the newspaper and magazine. In no particular is the art of skipping exercised to more advantage than in reading periodicals, especially newspapers. We do not eat everything that is spread before us at mealtime; why should we try to swallow everything that is crowded into a newspaper or any other periodical? News is necessary, but sensationalism is not. Do not let the periodical wholly crowd out the book.

One book of all others should have a place in our reading as in our devotions. It is an old book, but it has never been surpassed in the important and comprehensive character of its contents, in the purity and sublimity of its style, and in the scope of its influence. If anything must be neglected in your reading, do not slight the Bible! You can better afford to know nothing about the latest novel, or to be ignorant of the latest sensation in politics or society, than to be unfamiliar with the Bible. It is the Book of Books, a repository of divine truth, the inspirer of the noblest thought, a guide to God and heaven.

MORGAN P. JONES.

A handsome illustrated edition of the powerful historical romance, "Quo Vadis," (Whither goes thou?) by the Polish novelist, Henryk Sienkiewicz, has just been issued by the publishers — Little, Brown & Co., Boston. The success of the work, due to its many fine dramatic passages in the history of the times of Nero, has been phenomenal, and the present richly embellished edition will add largely to its attractions. The illustrations, include, besides maps of ancient Rome and plans of Roman houses "similar to those which furnish scenes for the story," a large number of photogravures from drawings by American and other artists. The romance, observes a contemporary, abounds with scenes for the painter, and a happy selection has been made of subjects which are either pleasant in artistic ways, or stirring and thrilling with their suggestions of dire tragedy.

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SELF CULTURE THROUGH DISCIPLINE

THROUGH the difficult to the great is ever God's royal order for the individual and the race. The best things are hard to get and own. Yet, if one would have the best, he must pay the price. Cobble-stones can be had for the gathering, gold and diamonds must be hunted and dug for. The worthless and choiceless lie on the surface, the choice and valuable are hidden away.

There are vast possibilities wrapt up in us. We are a bundle of possibilities. How shall we unfold? Where shall we plant? How grow great and strong and beautiful? These are questions far-reaching and vital.

From the acorn to the oak, from the infant mind to the mastering intellect, from letters to the sciences and philosophies, the ordained route is service and sacrifice. It was exampled by the Master, and the disciple must be as his Lord. This teaching seems hard and harsh to the inexperienced, but it is the height of kindness and wisdom. We waste a deal of useless sympathy upon those who start in life without social or financial aid. The fact is, they are most to be congratulated, who, at the beginning, have a rough and tough tussle with circumstances.

Ruskin sets it down as one of his early calamities, that he had "nothing to endure." A petted child makes an inefficient man or woman. No brawn of character without compulsory exertion. The men who sit firm and strong in their social, financial and political positions, clambered to them over rough and rugged ways. Misfortune is a rough nurse, but she raises giants. Disappointment is a stern, old teacher, with ferule and hard tasks, but he produces the best scholars. Results are what we are aiming at, and results are worth the processes.

Attention to the minute is the only way to achieve the great. No athlete but has struggled against scores of weaknesses. No man becomes learned except he masters a thousand infinitesimals of knowledge. Frederick the Great knew every soldier by name and conversed individually with his men. Napoleon had mastery in his vast plans because he knew every path, bridge, and defile in the country in which he campaigned. Great plans are but confusing dreams unless there be a mastery of details.

Some one has said "God shows his greatness more by minute crystals and atoms of organic life than by worlds. One law with but one single known manifestation suffices to round and swing worlds. But to make a crystal a dozen laws, with a dozen relations, are required. And for the creation and preservation of the smallest vital organism, inscrutable balancings and adjustments of many forces are demanded.

Truly to us He shows His greatness more by feeding young ravens, upholding sparrows, numbering the hairs of our heads, than in thunders and earthquakes and volcanoes.

One scientist, after long years of closest study of the processes of nature's upbuilding, cried out: "What a painstaking Creator our God is, how infinitely perfect His work is." We look out over a charming landscape and, in our joy of it, forget the long ages that God's agencies tugged and toiled with it before it was ready for human occupation; but every process of the past ages was subservient to the higher ends of habitation. So ever does God work. He is not an infinite quiescence but an infinite activity.

How all such thinking bears on us and on our life-work, on the laying of foundations, rearing superstructures, perfecting character! There is an intense personality in the purpose, plan, and aim of life. It touches us and we cannot evade it if we covet the best. The best costs, and few are willing to pay the price and few find the prizes. The prizes are enjoyable, the processes are detestable, and yet God hath married them together.

Our conditions, so we say, are not favorable. Our place in life's business is a misfit, and we chafe and waste our energies in sulky struggles.

Give us right conditions, and we could show the world a life of success. Alas, for our fairy dreams! The bars of gold are but sticks, as we confront our real and open day of opportunity; ay, sticks or levers, had we pluck to grasp and use, we could move things and create the coveted success.

We want culture, and so we fancy we must have leisure and books and money, agreeable environment. We surely can't

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get culture in the hum-drum of every-day duties. There is too much coarseness and drudgery and exhaustion. High art demands high life, and mine is low and menial. Culture demands fine clothes, and mine are coarse and soiled in shop and store and kitchen. Culture demands leisure, and I am yoked to my drudging tasks all the day and every day. What hope is there for me? What doors of opportunity will ever open for me? Who will ever recognize my worth as I am and where I am? And so doubt and dissatisfaction enter into my spiritual palace and disintegrate my power and destroy my rest. The very elements and conditions that I covet seem to elude me, the things I despise haunt and pester me like forest flies.

A juster thought teaches me my folly. Culture is not from without but from within. The heart is the secret of the life. The best the world has for us is the best that is in us. That ideal is too low which falls short of the best and divinest. The Christ teaches us that we should bring our highest ideas and noblest aspirations and our most common work into constant vital contact and keep them so. Then the ideal will vitalize the real. Then our flagging energies will take on power.

The environment of the world's great men was not harmonious; they had thorns and trials and aches, but, in spite of them, achieved. They did not covet their oppositions but the stirrings of genius and the calls of duty were imperious, and they stepped heroically into the opened path of duty, and God walked with them and worked with them, and they lived as in Paradise.

The better things of our life come through the ordinary processes of growth by culture. The graces we covet come not full-orbed and radiant from above, they grow from within by culture. Growth is a laborious process. The leverage of all nature outdoes the leverage of all machinery a million fold. Frederick the Great said of Joseph II., Emperor of Austria, that he always wanted to take the second step before he took the first.

So many unpractical people fail because they refuse to recognize the necessary conditions which fence a man in, impatient to reach the goal without doing the necessary work.

Take, for illustration, Paul. He had a thorn in his flesh and besought the Lord earnestly that it might be removed. God did not answer this prayer and yet he did. There are no unanswered prayers that spring from yearning hearts. His thorn had a mission. Originally it was a messenger of Satan; he meant to buffet and hinder this great man from his work. But through his prayer Christ seized it and transformed it into a grand ministry for his highest good. By this means he sought more grace and, spirit-endowed, he wrought marvels in revolutionizing his age and reconstructing it on the right basis. Originally, so runs the German fable, God created the birds without wings, and they hopped about on the ground and over twigs in search of their food. In their pathways were obstacles, and these they had to brace hard against for their removal. The burdens clung to them and while bearing them they grew to them and became wings, and with these they rose above the ground and flew. Difficulties plant themselves in our path, not as stumbling stones, but as stepping stones. Thwartings are not meant to check our progress, but to add strength and beauty to our lives. Botanists tell us that fruits on a tree are arrested growths. But the tree does not allow them to be failures; it turns its thwarted developments into something better than its first hopes. So it may be with thwarted hopes and frustrated plans in our human lives; they may become rich fruits in the character, and character is ever the end toward which God is leading and shaping. There is no difficulty that may not be made a ministry of good.

The routine work of life is, more or less, drudgery. It cannot be otherwise in fact, though it may be modified in spirit. There is a way of doing life's ordinary work so that you enjoy it and bless others while doing it. It is possible to put the artistic spirit into the artisan toil. It is possible to have delight in our work or in the results to be achieved, so that we shall forget the dull and tireless round of duty. Duties are pleasant or irksome as we put heart and thought and purpose into them. Not how much but how well; not where but in what spirit. "Whatsoever ye do, do it heartily, as to the Lord, and not unto men." Thus can we transform our dull store or shop or school

or nursery or kitchen into a Palace of the King, luxuriating in His presence and so beguile the tediousness of the way and work. How this lofty conception of life's mission exalts all its commoner acts. Nothing is little or menial. Everything is great. Every wire touched reports at the throne of God. Every spoken word rings out into the Eternities. The soul grows greater with every duty done and every trial met and mastered.

That wonderful picture of Murillo's in the Louvre I studied an hour one bright morning. In it the artist shows the interior of a convent kitchen. Neither nuns nor monks are doing the necessary work, but, rather, beautiful, white-winged angels. One is lifting a pail of water with a happy face; another puts a kettle over the fire to boil; another is at the sideboard reaching after plates with which to set the table, and it is all done so appropriately and with such heavenly grace that you are charmed and taught.

You wonder if so God looks at the everyday duties of our humble and trying sphere. As you look you feel it must be so, and instinctively say: "My everyday life, my drudging tasks are important and necessary, and, if rightly done, are dignified and glorified. I will henceforth put into all my plans and acts the angel-aim and the angel-grace."

The old artists, by a stroke of the brush, threw the aureola about their saints; we can make our own aureola, not by a single stroke, or wish or great act, but by repeated touches of truth and love and loyalty in the sphere where we live and toil. Here we get culture and grace and power and high qualification. So have we seen it. Character made strong and beautiful in the dull drudgery of unrecognized toil and unnoticed service. Patience wrought out to perfection; love blossoming with all heavenly fragrance; loyalty such as the angels have in heaven. Culture of highest order through discipline!

How with conscious relish we read the "Beatitudes," as they fell from the Master's lips that day on the mountain side as He spoke to the multitudes. Over and over we have conned them until they were embedded in memory and became as household words. How oft we have quoted them: "Blessed are the poor in spirit — the mourning — the meek — the hungering soul for righteousness — the merciful — pure in heart, etc.," so they run beautifully and blessedly on, delineating the highest types of character known on earth. So oft and glibly quoted, they seem real easy characters to produce. But are they easy growths? Can they be formed by a resolution? Can they be grown in a night like a mushroom?

For a score of years, we have been at this matter of self-culture, and are these common beatitude graces ours? Is the fruitage of our lives large and luscious and ready for the Master's use? The hardest thing, in this life, is the realization of our own ideal of a cultured life. We dream of it, long for it, resolve on it, work at it, but the real life has in it so little of beauty and grace, we get discouraged. No, the beatitudes are not easy, but necessary, and possible, and possible to us in the very sphere where we toil and think. Remember, there is no failure in our personal Christian work, the only failure is in not doing it. Carlyle said: "Not what I have, but what I do, is my kingdom." The world, and all in it, is yours, to help you work out the great, deep longings of your being. It was built for your use, use it. Do not attempt great things; you may waste your whole life in waiting for the great opportunity which may never come. Do the little things daily to the glory of God and so win His smile and help. It is harder to plod on in obscurity than to stand in high places within view of all in the field.

God is infinitely painstaking. His registry is perfect.

"A sacred burden is the life ye bear,
Look on it, lift it, bear it solemnly;
Stand up and walk beneath it steadily,
Fail not for sorrow, falter not for sin,
But on — up, till the goal ye win."

F. C. HUBBARD.

The student of the art of letters, as well as the literary craftsman, will, we are sure, be glad to make the acquaintance of a little manual on Style, recently issued by Mr. Walter Raleigh, Professor of English Literature at the University College, Liverpool. (London and New York: Edward Arnold, publisher.) Speaking of the admirable essay, the London "Times" observes that "it is the fruit of much reading and more thinking; it is informed by the true literary spirit; it is full of wisdom, inclining now and then to paradox, and it is gay with quaintnesses and unexpected epigrams. Mr. Raleigh's own style is of a rare and peculiar quality, and as a literary critic he has fairly established his claim to be heard."

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A WORLD LITERATURE

THE word "cosmopolitan" is a modern one, in that none but a modern could grasp its meaning. The ancients were, first and always, *polites* or citizens of their own little State, and the idea of the cosmos or world was at all times vague and shadowy to them. Their allegiance gravitated so naturally towards the small circle of their own social and municipal activities, that a larger citizenship in the world never suggested itself to them. Duties towards mankind at large, universal brotherhood, interchangeable ideals, and standards of moral conduct applicable to the entire human family — all these conceptions would have been alien to them. Their own culture was always best, and, as far as we know, little, if any, serious thought was given to the study of the literature of other peoples. Consequently, a world literature would not have appealed at all to them.

But this narrowness of vision was not confined to the Ancients alone. For centuries nothing but antagonistic differences were taken into account. No one sought to find the many points of likeness, the deep, almost entirely obscured, ties of kindred and religion, which belonged to all races, and no one thought it worth while to cement these bonds or make the brotherhood of man an object of conscientious research. The science of international law, of philology, the study of social economics, are all phases of our modern civilization. Breadth of view in matters political, religious, and literary, may be said to belong almost exclusively to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and the feeling which leads to a friendly and unbiased study of the institutions of all peoples, leads also to a generous comparison between the literatures of all countries. Thus the world to-day is far better fitted to judge of the comparative merits of its literary wares than at any other time, and the study of a World Literature follows as a natural and inevitable sequence. It is essentially a modern conception, and, if developed, will materially change our ideas on the teaching of literature in schools and colleges.

Several years ago there appeared in the "Century Magazine," a short article by Mr. T. W. Higginson, styled "A World Literature," which has since then been of more than passing interest in pedagogic circles, though how deeply it has moved the general public I am unable to say. Mr. Higginson's article, a page and a half in length only, dealt principally with the definitions of the subject, at the same time noting the lack of any reference to the study of a world literature, after looking over the catalogues of our leading colleges. He found an immense increase of interest in the study of languages, and concluded that all this prepared the way for an interchange or even a merging of the literatures of all nations. He earnestly advocated some work in this line. The idea is not entirely a new one, since we are indebted to Goethe for the suggestion. As so many advances in modern culture can be directly traced to Goethe, so in this new and hitherto untried field he showed his wonderful power of divination. Looking beyond his own time into the needs and demands of the future, for Goethe's time was at the very dawn of any national feeling, and long before a world interest in literary matters could have arisen, he is represented as having made to Eckermann the following notable statement:

"The time for a separate national literature has gone by. It is now a rather unmeaning phrase; the epoch of a World Literature is at hand, and each must do what he can to hasten its approach. It will not, however, be safe to select any one literature as a pattern or model, yet if such selection be made, the model must necessarily be the Greek." This, in brief, is the text for Mr. Higginson's remarks, and naturally forms the basis of my article. It is indeed a mere hint, not elaborated, to my knowledge, anywhere else, yet it is a hint of such deep suggestion and such undeveloped possibilities, that we wonder it has not long since been utilized by scholars and teachers.

Now, what meaning is conveyed by the term "World Literature," and what object would be gained by defining the nature of the subject? If breadth of culture, and true literary judgment be founded on a wide knowledge of all literatures, the necessity of studying the masterpieces of the world is readily recognized. A World Literature would nat-

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urally deal with the best, and would be studied from the point of view which an artist in literary workmanship would take. No attempt should be made to merge any one literature into another. Each national characteristic should be carefully studied, indeed highly prized; for the indefinable national perfume which exhales from every literature is capable of giving the keenest intellectual pleasure, and no process of assimilation could be used without detriment to this delicate, natural aroma. We would not search for a new literature, founded on all preceding ones, but rather for those works in all literatures which most efficiently help a student to acquire mastery over his own style and subject-matter.

Perfection of form is so closely associated with the literature of the Greeks that we naturally think of their literature as the very storehouse for our purpose. Their language has the texture of marble, and their literature has never been excelled in the perfection of certain literary forms. Yet, in a World Literature we would fain go beyond the Greeks, finding in the very cradle of the human race masterpieces which may well have served as models to the Attic bards themselves. The collective literature of the world is not too wide a field for the foundation of a World Literature, and those nations which have brought their product to the highest external perfection need to be studied the most. The thought and its expression, these are the two factors which must solve the problem, and, tried by the standard of the best and highest achievements of the human intellect, we can cull from each literature examples to aid us in our research.

Thus far the task appears an easy one, but now the question arises: What standards apply, what criterions use, in selecting from the enormous mass of merely good work? Let us suppose we are arranging a course of study adapted to the needs of university students, and it is this phase of the question which appeals directly to the scholar. How can the study of a World Literature be made of practical benefit in the literary training of the youth of our great universities? Mr. Higginson thinks a chair may properly be founded, and, in this connection, he regrets that no such course has been attempted in our best colleges. Now some such training in thought and literary expression has been recognized, and very successfully given in several of our colleges. Professor Jenks, now of Cornell, taught for several years a course in the World's Masterpieces at the State University of Indiana; while at the State University of Michigan, Professors Gayley and Scott have for some time given courses in "Literary Criticism," the study of which closely defines the position which I would myself take in outlining this work. There was no attempt made on the part of these instructors to teach philology, this department being rather inimical than favorable to the training desired. It dealt with Aristotle's Poetics as a basis, with the laws of the great divisions of literature, and with the application of these laws to the best examples of the epic, tragic, dramatic and lyric art in all times and languages. Imagine, under the direction of a ripe scholar, how elevating such a study of the best could be made. To what serene heights would our patient and loving contemplation lift us! We might indeed dwell with the Immortals for a brief space, finding such refreshment of spirit in their perfect work that ever after all our daily tasks would be lightened, and strength given us to do some one thing perfect of its kind.

The late Matthew Arnold affirmed that more and more will mankind discover that we have to turn to poetry to interpret life for us, to console us, and sustain us. I would add to poetry the highest prose, to make this statement complete, and would then challenge the world to find a better means, a truer source of consolation, than is derived from the loving study of a great masterpiece. A clear, deep sense of the best in literature is what we need, and the strength and joy to be derived therefrom are of the most priceless benefit to us. To what dim and shadowy realms of the past will this study lead us? Beyond the Greeks, and the Chaldean bards, to the very cradle of the race, to ancient India, the home of the flexible and graceful Sanskrit.

The epic or narrative poem is presumably the oldest form of poetry, as it is the loftiest, and the year one thousand before Christ was the era of the greatest epics the world has ever seen. Though first appearing in Egypt, the epic was brought to perfection by the

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Greeks, in Homer's "Iliad" and "Odyssey," and almost contemporaneously by the Hindoos also, whose literature counts two stupendous poems, the "Râmâyana" and the "Mahâbhârata." These are gems that would shine in the crown of a Homer or a Milton, and, in luxuriance of fancy and gorgeous imagery, they have never been equalled. A systematic study of the world's masterpieces would naturally begin with these Hindoo poems, and, apart from the pleasure derived from their faultless beauties, the benefit to one's literary training from the examination of their relative merits would be incalculable.

Matthew Arnold, in an essay, suggests two tests by which the true can be distinguished from the false, the highest from all inferior or second-rate poetry. They are: "fluidity of movement, and high seriousness of thought." These tests he would place on all poetry, making use of them as a touchstone to detect the best and highest. Fluidity of movement, and high seriousness of thought,— do not these two widely differing requirements effectually sift out everything, which has not the true ring? Yet it leaves us free and independent agents, critics of all we find, it is true, while, at the same time, it cannot help developing in us a fine tact and a firm, secure judgment. Apply this test to the great epics of all times, and how few will be found. After Homer's "Iliad" and "Odyssey" would come Virgil's "Æneid;" Dante's "Divine Comedy;" the "Nibelungen Lied;" "The Cid" and "Paradise Lost." I scarcely think there are any others, which would not fall short of the standard.

Let us look at another division, that of lyric poetry, and see how logically and systematically it can be carried down from the first lyrics of India to the songs and sonnets of to-day, the subtle aroma of which has been spent in one continuous flow since history's earliest dawn. Perhaps a lyric poem best represents the heart of a nation, it seems so truly a spontaneous outburst of emotion, and yet in no other poetical form can the polished precision of art be better applied. Fluidity of movement aptly characterizes the world's greatest lyrics, but the high seriousness is often lacking. Do we not feel this in almost all lyric poets? And does not this same light vein, this almost mocking spirit, confront us in the greatest lyric poet the world has yet seen, the incomparable Hafiz? Who, indeed, can compare with Hafiz? Heine and Goethe lovingly studied him, and it is truly said that the whole line of modern lyrics traces directly back to Hafiz and to his disciple Omar Khayyam. Each is a development, a growth, and all must be studied to comprehend the last.

Many do not realize how deeply the student of literary form is indebted to the Bible, which is rightly considered the best exponent of Hebrew and Semitic literature. Though the Hebrew does not boast of either epic or dramatic poems, its conceptions are more majestic and sublime than the Vedas or the Zend Avesta, and its art and literary workmanship are still unsurpassed. Masterpieces, in almost every form, can be found in its pages, and the writers of many nations have borrowed largely from this opulent source. Jeremy Taylor says: "Whatever in English literature possesses most of simple majesty and force, whatever draws away the soul from its cleaving to the dust, and lifts the thoughts towards a brighter sphere,— all such elements we owe directly to the Hebrew Scriptures." No other literature is so distinctly marked as the Hebrew by parallelism, and this powerful aid to literary expression can best be studied within its pages.

As a World Literature deals so persistently with form, much stress should be laid on dramatic literature, which is so fixed in its character and so dependent upon what we call the laws of dramatic art. No great dramatist ever dared to disregard these canons, and rigid adherence to them marks the superiority of the plays of the greatest dramatic writers. Again, we are confronted with Arnold's two conditions, fluidity of movement and high seriousness of thought. Let us see how many dramatic works verify both. A drama lends itself to selection less than any other form of literature. The unity of a play cannot be judged unless taken as a whole as a work of art, which the student projects before him. Curiously enough, we must go back to India for the only rival which Shakespeare perhaps has. Some lovers of Greek art do indeed place the immortal trio of Greek dramatists, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, on the pinnacle of earthly achievement, but I think the consensus of opinion is still in favor

of Shakespeare. All, however, unite in bestowing equal honors upon the Hindoo Shakespeare, Kalidasa, whose title to this distinction rests on his drama "Sakoontalâ;" or, "The Lost Ring," which portrays the simple life and unsophisticated manners of his countrymen, with exquisite tenderness and lofty imagination. "Sakoontalâ" may justly be called the "pearl of Eastern dramatic poetry." It has been translated into many European tongues, and has elicited the admiration of all civilized nations. Sir W. Monier-Williams has given to English readers a very good metrical version,* and Goethe has translated portions into German. Goethe himself says, in a charming verse to Kalidasa;

"Would'st thou the young year's blossom and fruits of its decline,
And all by which the soul is charmed, enraptured, feasted, fed,—
Would'st thou earth and heaven itself in one sole name combine?
I name thee, O Sakoontalâ,—And all at once is said."

The highest art in dramatic writing is to portray life accurately, vividly, and in language perfectly adapted to each character brought upon the stage. The drama must be a picture of real life, framed in appropriate setting, and this Hindoo, Kalidasa, felt the eternal truth of dramatic art as strongly and as truly as did Shakespeare himself. His management of the dialogues in his dramas is especially worthy of notice, the parts spoken by divinities, heroes, rulers, and priests are always in the ancient Sanskrit, while the inferior persons and the women use the more familiar dialect. Want of acquaintance with the sacred language, which was thus used in the principal parts of the classical plays, no doubt prevented the common people from fully understanding and enjoying these dramatic representations, and they never gained the popularity which the drama has had in other countries, where it has formed the entertainment of all classes. Therefore, these long-forgotten plays, now so lately brought to light through the exertions of modern philology, may fitly form the basis of all dramatic research and a style founded on them, and nurtured also by the great dramas of the Greeks, needs no other masters till we reach Shakespeare, our highest type of human genius. The drama of other lands and other times may be studied historically to the great benefit of the student, yet the greatest achievements of other nations, however high their merit, seem to fall short of perfection, if tested by the highest standard.

The durable quality of a great work is perhaps one of the most astonishing things in it. The best seems destined to live, in spite of fate, which so frequently tries to kill the offspring of genius. Dynasties rise and fall, and the fame of a genius is smothered beneath the ruins of centuries, when some chance discovery, like the finding of the Rosetta Stone, suddenly reveals a new world of literary remains, and scholars learn anew the lesson that all we moderns have achieved is but an inheritance from a past, which was incomparably greater than anything we dreamed of. Now, as we approach our own times, the question arises: What have we contributed towards a World Literature? Unless fixed and rigid standards are laid down, the question must be answered from each individual point of view. In poetry the same tests would be employed for all times and ages; we seem to know what is the best, and the canons already mentioned cannot lead us far astray. But prose literature is quite a different thing, and, if we include it in the limits of this paper, we must, perforce, use some other standard. Prose is amenable to different rules from poetry, and what might include the highest, most joy-giving poetry, might exclude the grandest, most helpful prose. So we find ourselves in something of a dilemma, and another definition must be made. Every nation has, at some period, given to posterity lofty examples of the prose style, and it is these which it behooves us to study. The benefits to our own style will not, I think, be so great as attained by a study of our own native prose; yet it, too, is almost indispensable, and the breadth and general culture derived from a knowledge of the best prose of all nations is always greatly to be desired.

How much or how little is lost through a translation is largely a matter of individual opinion. Emerson preferred to study all masterpieces through translations, and there seems to be a growing sentiment in favor of translations from

*Issued in the series of Sir John Lubbock's "One Hundred Best Books" (price $2.00), George Routledge & Son, London and New York.

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the Greek and Latin. Emerson's attitude arose, no doubt, from his tendency to search after the idea, the moral purpose of all writing, and, because of that inherent bent, he perhaps lost sight of other qualities to be studied in a perfectly constructed piece of prose. The idea was so much to him that he cared little for beauty of form alone, unless the moral lesson was prominent; yet such views are in the minority, and a serious study of languages, especially modern languages, is considered the only preparation for a thorough enjoyment of foreign prose. Most nations point to an age of poetry anterior to that of prose, and the poetry is apt to be of higher grade than the prose. Always excepting the Greeks, whose prose was equal to their poetry, and the Romans, who have left some perfect examples, we find comparatively little fine prose till we reach modern times. The Latin races all have a clear-cut language capable of making the finest prose, yet much of their prose has all the faults of the German circumlocution and slowness, lack of vividness and flexibility.

Germany and Italy lost much by having, for long, no good prose style, and when Goethe came to the Germans, offering them the gift of prose, his being truly the first great prose which Germany could count its own, the critics hardly knew what to make of it. Not until the pressure of a great national life had made itself felt, with its practical discipline and all its active forces, did Germany realize what Goethe had done for its prose. France and England have always had prose writers, acceptable to modern standards, if not coming quite up to them. The eighteenth century in England, and the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in France, seem to have been devoted to the fixing of prose standards, and as these hold good to-day, we may well ask what of all their prose is to endure? The practical genius of England long felt the necessity for a better prose style than that of Milton and Jeremy Taylor; it was too cumbersome, too circuitous, like the German, and the purposes and spirit of modern life demanded something more serviceable. A style stamped with regularity, uniformity, precision, and, above all, a certain clear and vivid quality, this is what was wanted, and these qualities mark modern prose. Our contemporaries all aim to produce word-pictures, and models of good prose are rapidly becoming interchangeable. We read with no sense of strangeness pictures of Russian, Scandinavian, and Spanish life, and, within certain race limitations, we use the same canons of criticism. Thus, the world's prose would be selected and judged by these canons, and the qualities above mentioned would be sought after in the best offered by each nation.

The best prose must always concern itself with life, and the work of the genius and amateur is at bottom the same, their aim being always the truth. So, when this criticism of life becomes permanently acceptable to man, having been tested by one or two or many generations, its transitory quality is lost, and it becomes of the best, rising to a place in the literature of the world. Therefore it is with extreme diffidence that I speak of modern prose. How are we to judge of its inherent truth? Are we so sure of our own taste, so certain that our own canons will bear the stamp of eternal truth? I think so, else I would not believe that a World Literature could concern itself with modern life at all. We feel intuitively that certain things have been a source of illumination and joy to us, as much as have been the fountain heads themselves, the Homers, the Dantes, the Miltons, about whom there can be no doubt. And so we read, and sift and enjoy; we criticise, reject and hold; and if we find truth, or if we are uplifted in spirit, that prose is to us a masterpiece. We can then apply canons of criticism, we can analyze, search for precision and vividness, simplicity and clearness, and if we find any or all of these qualities, we can again say, this is a masterpiece, and reverently and gratefully set that work above all others, refreshing our souls with the lessons taught by its illumined pages.

CARINA B. C. EAGLESFIELD.

We have had, of late, rather a surfeit of Scottish stories: now, thanks to the industry of a new writer, Miss Jane Barlow, Irish fiction is pressing once more to the front. In Miss Barlow's new volume, "A Creel of Irish Stories," there are some delightful phases presented of rustic character and a humorous and often pathetic delineation of its failings and its virtues.

THE TRAGEDY OF THE FIRST-BORN:

A LITERARY REMINISCENCE (*Concluded*)

By JUDGE ALBION W. TOURGEE, Author of "Hot Ploughshares," Etc., Etc.

When a book is written, the next thing, of course, is to secure a publisher. Except what literature discloses of the relations of author and publisher, I had no more knowledge of them than a child. I had, it is true, a vague notion that their establishment depended in some degree on the merit of my work; but I had no notion that a publisher was either a competent or candid judge of the same. Indeed, I am afraid that I regarded him as a sort of ogre whom the author must always be upon his guard against; who favored those whom he saw fit to favor, and delighted in destroying the peace and comfort of the child of genius, who was so unfortunate as to soar above his comprehension and fail to meet his approval. As I did not expect any considerable pecuniary returns from the sale of my book, but merely desired to learn, by its publication, the reception accorded it by the public, and especially by the verdict of that vague array, the critics, whether I really had any literary faculty or not, I determined to proceed in my search for a publisher upon lines which seemed to my inexperience most likely to secure that result. I can hardly think of the various steps I took without a blush at their strange absurdity. No doubt they will seem ludicrous enough to others, but one rarely becomes sufficiently indurated to laugh at his own folly. And yet the result was such as to strengthen the belief that there is a special providence which watches over fools, particularly of honest-minded fools, who seek not another's harm, but only a better knowledge of themselves.

I had a morbid fear, not so much of failure, as of its becoming known that I had failed — that I had the presumption to think myself capable of authorship. I do not know why I should have had this feeling, unless it came from the view that literature was a sort of guild of the immortals, from which common natures were excluded, by reason of their infirmity. I was willing enough to do my best in all other things and submit the results to the common judgment; but in this one field I shrank from having it known that I had ever aspired to success. It may have arisen from an instinctive perception of the many defects of my work, or it may have been the result of a natural morbidness which my way of life had encouraged. At all events, this feeling drove me to attempt one of the most difficult of the well-nigh impossible tasks which only ignorance can excuse any one for undertaking; I determined to publish the book without disclosing its authorship to any one, until after its appearance, at least.

I cannot avoid an uncomfortable feeling even now at the confession of my simplicity; but one whose life had been wholly passed in the country, or in absorbed attendance at the educational institutions of that time, had little opportunity to gain a knowledge of the world; so that when he was finally called upon to set foot to foot with his fellows in the conflict of life he was apt to find himself sadly unprepared for its realities. With the farm and its labors I was familiar: I knew the woods and waters and their denizens; I was at home in the world of books, and knew the men who wrote them as they might be known from their works; but of the world which buys and sells, of the scramble for pelf and the fight for life, I knew so little that its plainest ways were darker to me than the forest's trackless mazes. I was at home in the school-room and undismayed by public assemblage; I had not found myself out of place in the camp or seriously discomposed upon the battlefield; but the world of business was an inscrutable whirl, an unsolved mystery to me.

I had experienced no difficulty in securing anonymous publication of what I had written for some literary journals, simply because I did not reveal the fact that the name attached to my articles was an assumed one. As the replies to my letters were always directed to my box in the post-office, and I endorsed the small checks sometimes enclosed in payment to my order, before presenting them

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at a bank where I was well known, there was no occasion for any suspicion that the payee and endorser were one and the same person.

I was so inexperienced as to suppose that the same course could be pursued in the publication of a book. It was a silly notion, yet my very lack of knowledge of that fact led me to adopt perhaps the only means by which my end could possibly have been attained. I did not suppose that any of the great publishers of the country would for a moment concern themselves with so trivial a matter as my little book, and so by good fortune saved myself the pain of refusal which would necessarily have followed any proffer to them. On the other hand, I reasoned, most illogically, that a small publisher in some lesser city might regard my effort more favorably.

Acting on this hypothesis, I carefully rolled up my manuscript, little thinking that by so doing I was sensibly diminishing the chances of its being either read or accepted, and boldly directed it to a publisher in a neighboring city, of whom I had no knowledge, except that he advertised in the daily paper my father had taken since the outbreak of hostilities, as "bookseller and publisher." I had put an assumed name upon the title-page, and with the manuscript I sent a letter, cooling informing the publisher that the author would "call in a few days to make arrangement for its publication." I cannot think of this note even yet without growing hot with confusion, though the good man has long since gone to his reward, and even if he had not, would never guess, except from these pages, who it was that thus imposed on his good nature.

Fortunately for my present peace of mind, I had never had the hardihood to expect any profit from the sales of my little book. The utmost I had hoped was that they would partly meet the expense of publication. How the balance was to be defrayed, I had no notion. My condition was not such as to justify any expectation that my earning capacity would ever exceed what might be requisite for a very moderate support. I had some hope — wild and vague, rather than unreasonable — of being able to teach; and, as my strength increased, had unexpectedly received a very flattering offer for my services during the next academic year. I suppose the proffer was made quite as much from patriotic sympathy with my physical condition as from any just appreciation of the value of my services. However that may be, I never hear the name of the pretty village from whence it came, in which I supposed myself a perfect stranger, without feeling a thrill of gratitude for this kindly offer.

My hope was that I might thus earn enough to accomplish my purpose. I had no idea how much money it would require to publish the little book, but I estimated very carefully my necessary expenses, and decided just what part of each month's salary I would thus apply. But the problem of ways and means was destined to have quite another solution. While I waited, came the official notification that a pension had been granted me. It was but a trifle — all that was then allowed for a private soldier's disability. Alas, I never dreamed that the time would come when one who received such stipend from the government he had offered his life to save, would be looked upon with greater disapproval than those who sought to destroy it. I needed it badly enough, and thought at once that it offered a means for the accomplishment of my purpose; only I doubted whether, when the nation was in such straits, I ought to take it for anything not absolutely needful for my daily bread. A few months afterwards, I experienced a peculiar pleasure in renouncing it to assume again a place in the military service. I have come to know that both notions would now be esteemed mere silly, superfluous sentiment, and must candidly admit that there was little prudence or common sense in them. At that time, I did not even imagine they were anything but patriotic and creditable impulses. I know now that patriotic purpose is a poor enough avouchment; but the air was full of the microbes of folly then, and I seem to have been predisposed to the infection.

As soon as I could overcome my foolish scruples, I determined to apply the little sum that would soon be due to the publication of my book. A few days afterward, therefore, I was taken to the depot three or four miles away, put aboard the cars *en route* to the city wher

the pension-agent, on whose roll my name was entered, had his office, my intended publisher his place of business, and a great surgeon pursued his blessed vocation. I took with me the store of money I had, so small a store that to mention its amount would raise a smile. I was so simple as to suppose that with this and the pension money, I might meet the publisher's demand and pay the surgeon's fee. But that hearts were tender and sympathy quick in that day, I had met with bitter disappointment. After all, it pays sometimes to believe well of our fellows. That day's experience has shamed me often when I felt inclined to sneer.

With difficulty I could get about a little on my crutches, swinging my weight from side to side, and moving forward more by the exertion of the muscles of the upper part of the trunk, than by aid of the lower limbs, which were not only dull and inert, but so unreliable in their response to my will as to be only in a modified sense subject to it. How I climbed the stairs to the office of the pension-agent, I do not know. I think the task would never have been completed had not the cabman who brought me to the door, put his arm about me and half lifted me up each step.

The agent was a fussy, little man, whose roll consisted of a thin, wide book in which a hundred or more names were alphabetically arranged. At that time, the formalities of payment were very considerable, and he insisted that he could not pay the money to me directly, but that it must be paid through an attorney; he explained that it need not be an attorney-at-law, but must be an attorney in fact. I was so amazed at this notion that a man's own could not be paid to him direct, that I do not think I was able to protest. I am not sure that from pain, disappointment, and vexation, I did not even weep. I know I felt like it, and turned my face to the window that the agent should not see my weakness. As I did so, I noted a great senator of that time standing on the opposite side of the street in earnest conversation with two or three eager listeners. His face was familiar to me; he had even found time to come and see me in the private house which had been my hospital at Washington. At my request the agent consented to go and ask him to step over to the office for a moment. He came presently, one of the gentlemen with whom he had been talking still with him. They were speaking about the war which then filled the thought of all. I shall never forget how the strong face softened as his eye caught sight of the blue overcoat I wore. There was something almost sacred in the symbol of service at that time. I will not attempt to reproduce the language he employed when he learned the cause of his being called in. I think the agent's ears must have tingled for a long time afterwards. Finally every requirement was complied with, and the pittance paid over. I was ashamed there should have been so much fuss over so little, never dreaming that the time would come when I would, myself, pay hundreds of thousands of dollars each quarter on the same great account. Perhaps this experience made me more thoughtful in the performance of that duty, and more careful not to cause unnecessary trouble to those as weak and ignorant as I was then.

From the agent's office I went to the store of my publisher, as I fully meant that he should be. On inquiring for him, I was shown to his office, which was merely an open space, not even railed off, at the end of the store where he sat at a desk beside a window. A fire was burning in an open grate. He sat with his back towards it, but, having learned my business, turned around and asked me to be seated in a chair he placed before the fire. He made many inquiries in regard to my condition, addressing me always by the name I had put upon the title-page of my manuscript. My conscience reproached me for the deception I had practiced on one so kind and sympathetic, and I was more than once on the point of telling him the truth when the fear of failure would get hold of me and seal my lips again. I reflected that if the book should succeed it would be easy to undeceive him, while if it did not, I would be inexpressibly glad that he did not know my real name.

He was very kind. I know now that he felt a sympathy for me which I little realized or appreciated then. He tried to soften the pain of refusal by stating that he had read the manuscript — very carefully. It was "not so bad," he said "for a first effort." Then he explained

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that a publisher's interest in a book was purely a pecuniary one. He doubted if the book would sell. I replied that I did not think it would have much of a sale, and informed him why I particularly desired its publication; because I wished to learn, from the comments of the press upon it, whether I really had any aptitude for literary work. He must have been intensely amused at my childish notions; but he did not laugh at them, for which forbearance I shall ever hold his memory in reverence. But he said he could not handle it unless I chose to assume the cost of publication. This I declared my readiness to do. He bit his lip, and, I have no doubt, was vexed at himself for having thus qualified his refusal. From that moment, however, he devoted himself to making my risk as little as possible. He told me about type and paper, and showed me a new kind of marvellously cheap binding, a stiff, gray board which was really very nice. He insisted that a small edition would accomplish my purpose just as well as a large one, and suggested that if there was demand for more, I could add new poems and make a larger volume. He figured the cost down to a sum that seems to me now inconceivably low, saying that he would not charge any commission on "the first edition."

"The first edition!" May the dews of Paradise be sweet upon his gentle soul for that bit of considerate kindness! It took all my pension money and perhaps a bit more to secure him against loss, but it was not so bad an investment after all, with that "first edition" thrown in. How it sweetened my homeward journey! Well, well, many a man has paid more and received less, in the same strange lottery. Besides that, the good surgeon had given me three little vials with a grain of hope artfully mixed with an "if" in each. What cared I that my purse was empty and that I reached home after a long, cold ride over the frozen road, having eaten nothing since the early breakfast! Was I not to be well again, and an author?

Two or three weeks afterwards I received by post, two of the books, addressed to the fictitious author, in my care, as I had directed.

Such a fit of trembling seized me when I opened the package, that I could scarcely read the verses, every one of which I knew by heart. I could only see the pages and realize that my dreams were stamped upon them. A great fear came upon me, too. Would the world read? If it did, would it approve or condemn?

I think my father noted my agitation and guessed its cause; for he stooped down and, taking the volume that lay upon my breast, seated himself in his accustomed rocker and read page after page. He had a way of moving his lips when he read, by which I fancied I could follow his thought. One or two passages he read aloud. I knew he recognized parts of it, and felt that he was disappointed. Yet he said, not unkindly, as he laid it down, that there were "some very good things in it." It was not until my years numbered almost as many as he had then seen, that we spoke of it again. He went out to do the chores, and I turned to the wall and wept.

It was a sad night, that first I passed in the throes of agony which, I suppose, beset every author when he realizes that what is done is done, — that what is writ is written ineffaceably. I had not read the few fair pages — they were fair, the paper tinted; the publisher said it was a little left over from a more important job, which was the reason he could afford it so cheaply. The type was exquisite, too. The stanzas stood out upon the creamy page like delicate frames of invisible pictures which fancy might trace as the eye followed the lines. I have always been very fond of neat printing, especially in poems. A little volume of Joseph Rodman Drake's "Culprit Fay," which I had bought a year before, was then my ideal of a fitly framed poetic fancy. Even now, one would have to go far afield to find a better.

The proof reading was good, too. The publisher said there was no need to trouble me with it, the copy was so neat that he had read it with pleasure. Ordinarily, I am a poor enough penman; but I had transcribed this in printed character, a trick I had caught of a classmate and had found very useful in some studies, especially Greek. A part of the manuscript, which I still have, quite bears out the old gentleman's commendation though never since has a printer found

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it incumbent on him to approve my copy.

With the outward appearance of my first born, therefore, I was well satisfied — I may even say, delighted. Had I felt that the inner quality was equal to its outward garnish, I would have been quite content. But every dull and dragging verse, every halting line, every weak and awkward simile, every discordant word, stood out in my dreams, clothed in ten-fold Gorgon horrors.

> "All night I lay in agony,
> From weary chime to chime,
> With one besetting, horrid hint
> That racked me all the time,"

and like the hapless murderer, too,

> "Heavily I rose up
> As soon as light was in the sky,"

determined to see my work by the clear, cold light of the early day, and decide for myself what merit, if any, there was in it. This examination, while not wholly reassuring, served to overcome somewhat the horror which had grown to such terrible proportions during the night. The excitement had done its work, however. It was the very thing I had been cautioned to avoid by the kind surgeon who had held out the shred of hope. I seemed to have lost all that I had gained. So I lay upon my bed and thought, a bad enough thing to do at any time, when that of which one thinks is irrevocable,— and type is the most perfect earthly synonym of the immutable. What is printed rarely dies, however much one may wish its disappearance. I had the spirit of the infanticide; I wished the child of my brain were dead. At the same time, I was not wholly sorry it had lived. Its life had answered some questions — not all of them satisfactorily. There were, as I had been assured and now clearly perceived, some things in it not entirely bad. It was rugged, uneven, and much of it horribly commonplace. Yet I thought it had served its purpose, and answered the question I had put it forth to ask. I no longer doubted that I had a certain literary capacity; whether it was sufficient to justify further effort would depend on what others might think of its first fruits. This test was to be applied more quickly than I imagined.

This day was the Sabbath — a Puritan Sabbath in every truth. The family were faithful church-goers, and I was left alone with the dog, my pain, and my thought. It was a bright, chill day. The frost sparkled on the dark balsam which shot up its tapering shaft just opposite my window. One copy of my book in its cool, gray binding lay beside me on the bed. There was a step along the frozen path that led back to the door by which the family room was entered. The dog barked; the step was therefore a strange one. Who could it be? I quickly covered the book with a corner of the bedspread, having a sort of guilty fear that some one might surprise my secret. The door opened and a cheery voice cried out:

"Eh bien! Ou est mon frère?"

"Ici, mon cher Ysouf, ici," I replied, and in an instant a dark face, aglow with love, appeared in the doorway; there was a warm clasp of the hands; an eager inquiry:

"How do you do?"

Then the voice choked, and there were tears in the great dark eyes. He sat down upon the bedside, drew out his handkerchief and began to wipe them away. I suspect there were tears in my eyes, too, only I did not notice them.

It was Ysouf, my one boy-friend — the one man who during all my life has been nearer to me than any other. We had read French together and called each other "frère;" for no reason unless it were that I had no brothers, and he, being the youngest of thirteen, might be supposed to have a surplus of the plain English article. It was a genuine case of love at first sight; we had been cronies for half a dozen years, and have continued the relation ever since. In all that time we had quarelled but once, and even that estrangement lasted hardly five minutes. At this time he was teaching, half a dozen miles away, and had come to spend the day with me. We had met but a few times since my return from "the front," and he had not yet become accustomed to my crippled condition.

There was much to tell and to be told. The dear fellow had a marvellous fine sense of humor, which the years have sharpened, as they always do a pronounced quality — and it seemed as if he had been treasuring up all the funny things he had heard since we last met for my special delectation. By and bye, when his store seemed as nearly ex-

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hausted as it ever gets, I drew forth the little book and began to read it to him. Dear, gentle Ysouf, he would have bitten off his tongue had he known the truth, rather than have uttered the words he did! But he was bound to amuse me, to make me laugh; and he knew of no better way to do it than by sharp criticism of what I read. He had a quaint gift of mimicry, and, seeing always the comical side of things, easily turned the most serious matter into ridicule. I had read some little time, he sitting in silence, when I struck the verse:—

"When first the young crocuses peeped from the earth."

At once there came from him such a perfect imitation of a young rooster's first attempt at crowing, that I stopped in surprise and, looking up, saw him arching his slender neck while giving vent to that complacent chuckle which usually follows that achievement on the part of chanticleer. In answer to my look of puzzled inquiry, he said:—

"Go on; that's good, first rate—that about the young *crow cusses!* Let's have some more."

The pun was atrocious, but there was something about his quaint assumption of eagerness, the open mouth and eyes distended as if in wonder, that quite convulsed me. I threw the book behind the bed and laughed until I wept, and wept until I laughed again. It was not until long after that the faithful friend knew in how sore a spot his jest had hit me. I had intended to send one of the books to my sweetheart, who, I thought, would at least pardon its imperfections. We had almost agreed not to love each other any more, because no one thought I would ever be able to do a man's part in life, and life without ability to labor meant something more than merely straightened circumstances to one in my condition; it meant that horrid spectre which one would rather face death than meet—sheer want and helpless dependence. Yet though we felt that we must give each other up, we kept on writing until—until there was no need to write. I had intended one of these volumes for her; but it was not sent. The next morning I put both of them in the stove!

Some months afterwards a young man in an officer's uniform stepped into the bookstore of my publisher and made his way back to the office in the rear. The proprietor gave him a puzzled glance when addressed, then rose and extended his hand, while a look of kindly remembrance passed over his face:

"Why it's you, isn't it, Mr. W———? I didn't know you for a minute—never saw you on your own legs before, you see. Sit down, sit down. Glad to see you have recovered—if you have recovered. You don't walk just right—noticed that as you came in. Think you'll be all right? Well, I hope so—I do hope so. Isn't it rather risky though—entering the service again so soon? Well, yes, Doctor Ayers told me—the day you were here last—but the doctors make mistakes, else how could they disagree? Well, I hope you've seen the last of the crutches. You are looking well;—make me think of my son;—*he* was a lieutenant, too; got a wound at Shiloh and died of gangrene in the hospital, before I could get to him. Yes, yes, it's hard—the only one I had. But we all have to give something to the country now. I'm afraid you're doing wrong,—going out again in your condition,—indeed I am."

The old man took off his glasses, wiped his eyes, blew his nose, and said, apologetically:—

"I suppose you've called to see about our little book. It hasn't gone very well. I'm sorry; seems as if it deserved better. But one can never tell. I sent it to the local papers;—one of them noticed it;—like to see what it said?"

He handed me a narrow strip, pasted on a printed heading of the newspaper, giving date of issue.

"Not so bad," he continued, as I perused the notice,—"not so bad—what there is of it, that is. The others didn't say anything. That's very good what it says about the description of the wheatfield:—

'The sun rose over the Maryland hills,
And kissed the ripening grain,
Which answered back in billowy rills
The gleam of his glory again.'

"That struck me the first time I read it. You mustn't be discouraged; if you live through the war, I think you will be an author that will succeed. What makes me think so? Well, if all the little book had been as good as some of it—though there's no knowing, especially

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since the war has come on. That has spoiled the book-trade, — nobody buys or reads anything now but newspapers. You've got the secret of success though, — hard work and taking pains. A man who would print out that manuscript as you did, with a pen, will get a hearing sometime, if he keeps in the mood to ask it, that is."

"How many of the books have sold?" asked the young officer, tremulously.

"Well, not a great many; twenty or such a matter, I suppose. I only bound a hundred, thinking there might not be much call for them. I sent out very few to the press; so you've got most of the edition on hand. For the same reason, there's a small balance in your favor; what you paid covered the binding of the whole edition, you see. You wanted it 'entered according to act of Congress,' but I thought there was no use wasting a dollar on that."

"Of course not," was the response. "Where are the unbound copies?"

"Up in the bindery."

"And the bound copies?"

"On the shelf yonder."

"Will you have them taken upstairs, too?"

"Why — yes," hesitantly, — "if you wish it — certainly."

"I suppose you have a trimming knife there?"

"Of course; — but — you don't mean —?"

"I used one once, — when I worked in a paper-mill, — and I would like to see if I have forgotten how."

"I see; — well, — it may be the best thing to do. If anything should happen, your friends might be glad to have the book; but if you should come out all right, it would be better — much better."

"It was worth doing, though, even if you make waste paper of the whole edition."

"Could you get back those you have sold?"

"I presume so: they are probably charged, except those sent to the newspapers; — those may have got scattered."

I climbed up to the bindery and saw the "edition" packed upon the frame of the cutter and I myself pushed it against the knife, while a sturdy workman turned the heavy wheel, the momentum of which carried the sharp edge clean through the heavy charge. Again and again the knife crunched through the pretty pages and split the cool gray covers. I was not wise enough to be glad. Each dull, dragging cut sent a thrill of regret through my sadly-wounded self-love; but I had determined never again to attempt "literary work," and did not wish to leave any evidence of my one endeavor in that line.

A year afterwards I passed through the city again. It had been a year of marches and battles, of camp and prison life. I had passed a birthday within the walls of Libby only a fortnight before. How bright the world was! After six months of terror and constraint, to be free once more and in the glad sunshine! To see familiar faces and revisit familiar scenes! Beside that, I had been married for a week, my brief leave of absence just serving to bound the honeymoon.

Visiting the old publisher, he informed me that he had recovered all the copies sold but one, and all the "editorials" except four.

"There's just five of the books out somewhere, — if they havn't been destroyed," he said, "but it's more than likely they have been burned or worked up into paper-pulp."

I paid the good man what he had expended in my behalf, for which sum, with the old-time formality, he gave me a receipted bill for "sundries" bought of him. He went with me up to the bindery, — there were no elevators then, — and I saw the last of my "literary work" beheaded with more composure than I had felt at the previous execution.

The bride of a week had already developed a strong tendency towards domestic economics. Inquiring as to my method of keeping accounts, she was horrified to learn that it consisted simply in paying out my money while I had it, and going without when it was spent. It is a method without certain advantages, and has the very highest legal testimony in its favor. Just why any one should care to know, after his money is gone, precisely what he has paid out his dimes and pennies to obtain, I could never quite understand. But the bride declared that she was going to begin her married life just right by keeping track of every cent. So she procured a little memorandum book and exacted a promise that I would enter in it every item of

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cost incurred in our short month of happy wandering. When the day of departure was approaching and she was packing the small leather trunk, which was to contain my outfit in the camp, should it escape the perils of war transport and guerrillas, she found in this little book, the entry of the balance paid my publisher: —

"To Cash, Damphool, $3.89."

The works of a noted humorist had made that name somewhat more familiar than it now is,—so that there was little sense of profanity in it,—though the article itself seems to me to be hardly rarer now than it was then.

"What was that for?" she asked.

"That, my dear," was my reply, "is the one piece of folly the nature of which I do not feel bound to reveal."

"Well," she said, demurely, as she pressed the end of the pencil against her fair cheek, "it doesn't seem to have been very expensive."

She little knew what that bit of folly had really cost. But I had a sharp memory of it—so sharp that it was twelve years before I again ventured to attempt "literary work," destined to appear in printed form, and five years more before I grew bold enough to put my own name upon the title-page of a book not professional in character. So far as I am aware, no one has ever attributed the volume to me. Indeed, I doubt if any one but Ysouf remembers ever to have seen it. The publisher died without knowledge of my identity, the accounts being kept in the fictitious name upon the title-page, which he had assumed to be mine. I have sometimes reproached myself for permitting this self-deception. Had he lived until some measure of success had crowned my work, I think I should have confessed the truth to him. The wife wheedled the secret from me, of course, and after it was a matter of no moment, Ysouf learned the part he had played in the murder of my first-born. Now, that thirty years have passed, I feel secure from any haunting fear that my youthful rhymes will ever cause my descendants to blush for the incredible immaturity which such fragments as escaped the knife, and have been preserved without my will rather than by my folly, convince me, must have characterized my first effort.

On the whole, though it was a rather severe rebuff to my aspiration for "literary work," I am glad that "my first book" was written, and regard its publication as one of the most successful adventures of my life. Had it been even a moderate success, it would most likely have proved fatal to riper achievement of better worth.

A QUEEN'S POSSESSION IN CENTRAL AMERICA AND HOW IT BECAME ONE

WHEN Peter Wallace, in the middle of last century, ran his ship to the leeward of the islands, which, like pendant pearls, are strewn down the lower coast of Yucatan, he little thought of planting a permanent colony for his Britannic Majesty. Just then, piracy and buccaneering were on the wane in the West Indies, and Peter's trade, as a freebooter, was bad. The Spaniards were learning to settle down to more peaceful pursuits than despoiling and murdering Indians, and had already discovered the wealth contained in the timbers of the tropical forests on the mainland of Central America, so that their ships were more often freighted with wood than with gold. The buccaneers at first did not appreciate the wisdom of the Spaniards, as was shown by Grandmont when he surprised the Spanish settlement at Campeche, and finding the place stacked with log-wood, burnt over a million logs in one big bonfire, in honor of Saint Luis, as the proper use for it.

But Wallace was a Scotchman—a plain, practical, Presbyterian Scotchman—and when there were no more gold-laden galleons to plunder, and his crew clamouring for their promised wealth, he pointed to the gloomy solitude of the Honduras coast, and said: "Would ye ha' wealth? Look ye! Yonder timber is as good as gold, and ye hiv na to fight, nor shed human blud to win't, but work ye like honest men."

And so Peter, with some eighty fol-

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lowers, established a wood-cutting camp on a low morass at the mouth of an unexplored river, hidden from the open waters of Honduras Bay, by that string of pendant islands sheltering the mainland. This camp of pirates, by chance or by force, became one of steady wood-choppers, and it thrived and grew apace, unmolested by the original claimants of the soil. To it the old Scotch freebooter left his name as a legacy, which, in the Spanish tongue, became Wallize or Valize, and eventually Belize.

To the West, far away, where the forest breaks, and broad, undulating savannas roll on to meet the forest of Chiapas and Yucatan, the early conquerors discovered, in the midst of a lake, an aboriginal city. Later on, missionaries wended their way hither through the dim solitudes of southern Yucatan, to convert the souls in the place. As years passed, with their conversion, the simple aborigines disappeared and the "Island City" was turned into a penal colony for the King of Spain. Once conducted to that little island in the lake, there was no need of prison bars or prison guards to keep the exile there. The savannas were broad and green and fertile; the deep waters of the lake were refreshing, and the exiled Spaniard learned to love his new home. Eventually a new race of people sprung up, populating a little world by themselves. But they belonged to the Spaniards' monarch, and they grew up in the belief that all the world was the King's. So one day, when a party of hunters who were roaming through the forest came to the big river that drained their plains, and, venturing down it, discovered the old Scotch buccaneers' settlement at its mouth, they were astonished. Returning to their own little world, they related all the strange things they had seen, and then the people, in the name of their King, determined to drive out the usurpers.

We are told that an army of 1,500 men set out from the Island City: to-day there are scarcely that many inhabitants there, but this was in 1754. Marching through the tropical wilderness, abounding with morasses and lagoons, the bold army fell upon the English, only to meet with repulse and defeat. The broken and dejected Spaniards made their way back to their island home, where it must have taken them twenty-five years to recuperate, for the wood-choppers heard nothing of them again till 1779, when, again toiling through the forest, they fell upon their English foes. This time the Spaniards were successful, for the settlements were destroyed, and their occupants were carried away prisoners.

But the English have always been a hard race to whip, so they returned, rebuilt their camps, and were soon actively engaged in the business of wood-cutting. The business having proved profitable and preferring to cut wood to fighting, a treaty was negotiated between Great Britain and Spain, which recognized the latter's sovereignty over the territory, granting to the English settlers the mere privilege of cutting timber within a specified district for a term of years, but stipulating that the English should set up no form of government nor build fortifications of any description on the territory. The English steadily worked away, and, at the expiration of the stipulated period, in the early part of the present century, Spain discovered the English so strongly entrenched that she was unable to drive them out.

Such is the history, in brief, of how the English got there. To-day there lies behind that string of keys, a Queen's possession, still as snugly hidden as were its dark morasses when piracy declined in the sea of the Antilles and Peter Wallace turned from freebooter to wood-chopper. So little known is the possession, that I have been able to find only a very little written about it; and not long ago I discovered, in a new up-to-date school geography, that there was such a colony where the climate was so intolerably hot that the trees had to be cut down at night and fire flies were used as lanterns! The truth is, that, beneath that cathedral-like gloom of the tropical forest, the atmosphere is usually cool and the negro mahogany cutters begin work at daybreak finishing their tasks about 4 P. M.

Although, in looking through the Astor Library, in New York, I have been unable to find a single work devoted to the colony, I am aware of a little book, written by Mr. A. R. Gibbs, and published in England some fifteen years ago. Even this book I have been unable to obtain, and probably I would not have been aware of its publication, if I had not known Mr. Gibbs himself, the tall gentleman, and ex-soldier of "The Black

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Watch," a well-known character, distinguished in and about the streets of Belize by a tendency to insobriety.

The present city of Belize is built partly upon an island, and partly upon the mainland, at the mouth of the big river which drains distant Peten. A heavy, wooden bridge crosses the river and connects the two portions of the city. Ballast from innumerable ships, together with log-wood and mahogany chips, have each contributed a share towards raising the partially submerged island above high water. The foundations of the houses consist of posts, some high and some low, as may suit the fancy of the builders. Notwithstanding the fact that the government has spent large sums in the construction of drainage canals, at certain seasons of the year the water flows and ebbs underneath many of these houses, while in the dry season potable water is so scarce that it often has to be brought in boats from many miles up the river. The place has a population of about 10,000, chiefly blacks, descendants of those originally brought by the settlers, and slaves captured from slave ships by British men-of-war, when that nefarious trade was tolerated.

The chief industry is still the cutting and exporting of timber, although there was a time when the colony derived considerable importance from its commerce with the adjacent republics. Some idea of the value of the exported wood may be formed from the report that three logs, the product of a single tree, brought $15.000 in the English market.

British Honduras extends some 160 miles, north and south, fronting Honduras Bay, and is about 60 miles wide—Yucatan bounding it on the north, and Guatemala on the west. Although the treaty with Spain gave the wood-cutters the right to exploit the forest for their timber along this coast to a distance of fifty miles, for the term of forty years, none of the stipulations were heeded in the least by the settlers, who continued to extend their boundaries as suited their convenience. After the independence of the Spanish colonies, Mexico laid claim to the territory, and in a treaty signed in London, in 1838, between Great Britain and Mexico, the terms of the original treaty of 1786 with Spain were recognized, and later an act of Parliament refers to Belize as a "settlement for certain purposes." But the treaty with Mexico and the "certain purposes" did not suit the settlers, who turned to their more important neighbor, Guatemala, and surprised its Indian President, Carrera, by informing him that they were occupying a portion of his domain, for which, of course, they were perfectly willing to pay. Carrera had never heard of Belize, and that (to him) far-off corner of the earth was of little consequence. Therefore, when he was presented with a beautiful gold-hilted sword from Her Most Gracious Majesty, the Queen of England, there was little difficulty experienced in convincing the former brigand-chief that the seven thousand square miles of Mexican territory surreptitiously occupied by the English settlers belonged to him. In return for this bit of diplomacy, or the sword, or the territory,—we are not sure which,—Carrera, having recently learned to sign his name, affixed it to a treaty establishing a definite boundary line between his country and what now became recognized for the first time in history as a permanent colony of Great Britain.

By this treaty the colonists extended their lines as far South as the Sarstoon River, and west to a point on the Belize River, known as Garbutt's Falls. From its geographical situation, the southern portion of this territory undoubtedly belonged to Guatemala. In compensation for this bit of land, Guatemala claims that the English promised to construct a cart-road from their port of Belize to the capital of Guatemala. To those acquainted with the topography of the country lying between the Honduras morasses, and the rugged cordilleras of Guatemala, it is needless to say that the cart-road has never been constructed. Few men have ever even made the journey—the writer of the present article being one of the few.

Since Carrera's era, Guatemala has protested in a mild way against England's occupation of all this territory, claiming that the treaty with Carrera was never ratified by the Government, or signed by the Assembly. Still the colonists have gone on cutting the woods and exploiting the lands in every direction till the majestic mahogany is becoming scarce, and the available log-wood within the colony has nearly all succumbed to the wood-cutter's axe. In turn, some at-

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tention has been given to the growing of fruit.

The Colonists are not an agricultural people. They do not seem to incline to the tilling of the soil or to the raising of cattle, while their food consists almost wholly of foreigu importations. Their supply of beef is usually driven from the savannas of Peten, or more frequently shipped in little trading schooners from Honduras, while the weekly mail steamer from New Orleans, subsidized by the English government, brings them vegetables and bread-stuffs. The only commodities the local market supplies are an abundance of turtle and fresh fish, with an assortment of yams, plantains and cocoanuts.

At the conclusion of our Civil War, many dissatisfied Southerners sought Belize as a haven of refuge against the mismanagement, they termed it tyranny, of the North. Concessions were made them by the English to settle what was known as the Toledo grant, in the southern part of the colony. There they succeeded in turning the tropical forest into cheerful and productive sugar farms, thus proving that the Southerner is not always devoid of enterprise and energy, as his Yankee cousin generally supposes. Other Americans settled in various parts of the colony and prospered.

Along the coast, south of Belize, there are several settlements of Caribs, a peculiar, dark-skinned people, more closely resembling Africans than any of the American aborigines. They are said to be the descendants of those fierce, warlike people who maintained a bloody struggle in the Island of St. Vincent till the English were obliged to transport them in ships to the mainland of Honduras. There is nothing war-like about them now. Is it because history lies, or that the transplanting of a people changes their characteristics?

Where the territory borders to the westward on Guatemala, there are several settlements of Indians who have fled from their debts or other obligations that have made them amenable to the laws of that republic. Under the English flag, these poor creatures are allowed to hang up their hammocks, swing in the shade, starve and die, for that is the inevitable end of the Indian exiled from his land, his customs, and his people.

On the north, the colony is bounded by the Rio Hondo, beyond which lies the vast, unexplored wilderness of Yucatan. Somewhere within this wilderness is the mysterious Maya city of Chan Santa Cruz. When Yucatan set up a government of her own, in 1848, by declaring her independence from Mexico, these Maya Indians cast off their allegiance to the whites, and, encouraged by their success, they carried on what has become known in Yucatan as the War of the Races. They have sought the extermination of the Spanish-speaking people, and have devastated the country about, massacring all those unfortunate enough to fall into their hands. Several Yucatan cities were captured and the inhabitants cruelly murdered, and they still hold in their possession the ancient city of Bacalar, a once prosperous town not far from the frontiers of the English colony. It was owing to the onslaughts of these Indians, that the whites of Yucatan were forced to call upon Mexico for help. Mexico sent her troops to the aid of her erring state, and drove the Mayas back to the fastnesses of the forests, but were unable to conquer them.

The stories of the frightful barbarities of these Indians and the massacre of the inhabitants of Bacalar had been carried into Belize by refugees from Yucatan, so that their names were a household terror to all the good citizens of Belize. These had been established at Belize a local volunteer force of creole negroes, but it was a self-evident fact to the authorities that these red-jacketed Africans would be worse than useless in case of trouble with the rebellious Mayas. For the better protection of the colony, an appeal was made to the home government, and in response a detachment of Her Britannic Majesty's West Indian troops was sent. These were negroes also, as black as night, fierce-looking devils, fully six feet in height, bedecked in a gorgeous display of gold lace and fantastic colors. A white vest, trimmed with gold beneath a blue, Moorish jacket; baggy blue trousers and a mutton-pie hat scarcely large enough to cover the poll for undress —and a turban for full dress, were the conspicuous features of their uniforms. It was with a feeling of relief that the colonists reviewed these fine-looking Africans as they landed upon the quay, with the avowed purpose of protecting them from the barbarians at the North.

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The very sight of them was enough to frighten the pigmy savages of Yucatan back into their wilderness home. As these new soldiers deployed upon the green, in front of the barracks, marched and counter-marched, the creoles of Belize were filled with admiring wonder. When off duty, they would lounge about the streets and swing their little rattan canes with a jaunty air, in perfect imitation of a genuine English officer. Who could doubt their effectiveness, if they were ever brought to face those half-sized Mayas on the North? But trouble soon came.

Near where the colonists claimed as their frontier, a stockade was built, but by some grave error or want of foresight, I have been told, it was erected without due regard to strategic design. Built on the wrong side of a very advantageous position, it left the advantage with the enemy, in case he should ever come. A detachment of the Queen's newly-arrived, fierce-looking soldiers was sent to take up their quarters in this stockade and defend the frontier. But the Indians, apparently, had no intention of carrying on their depredations to the south of the Rio Hondo; consequently, the gallant giants enjoyed life in the frontier settlement, where two ex-Confederates carried on the business of planting cane and making sugar, and an English company employed a small army of creoles in cutting logwood. There was nothing to do for the soldiers, beyond their ordinary day-drills, so they flirted over the fence with buxom creole girls, or danced to the music of fife and drum at their evening balls.

In the meantime, sundry yellow-visaged vagabonds came to the colony and trafficked with the merchants, who willingly sold them imitation guns of Belgium manufacture, with which to fight the Mexicans, while there was a fair demand for German accordeons, gun-powder, and calico. Thus, things went on quietly enough in the colony, while the Maya Indians occasionally swooped down upon some Yucatan village and put the inhabitants to flight or massacred them.

One day, a Maya chief, accompanied by his retinue, appeared at the stockade on the frontier, and demanded audience with the magistrate, a justice of the peace, whose office is to hold court and settle the petty disputes of the colonists. The audience was granted. The chief petitioned that whereas one of his people had lost a wife, who had eloped with some black-hearted villain that had settled within English jurisdiction, he prayed that the wife and the villain be delivered up at once, to be summarily dealt with, according to Maya justice.

The magistrate, through the agency of a learned interpreter and a native lawyer (for lawyers are always plentiful among the Queen's negroes), endeavored to expound international law and lay down the rules governing extradition, and the want of any law or precedent to guide him in determining cases of the kind within his immediate jurisdiction. But this learning and law were all lost upon the Maya chief. He was minus a wife, and, having found her under the protection of the Georgian monarch, he could not comprehend why he should not be allowed to carry her across the river to his own domain. But the magistrate stoutly refused to grant his petition, and the chief, being thus balked in his desire to secure the return of the delinquent wife, went home and at once declared war.

In a short time, the Maya army appeared, armed with the Belgian guns bought from British merchants, and, taking up a position on the strategic side of the stockade, behind long piles of logwood, awaiting shipment, they opened fire from their secure position upon the interior of the stockade, and killed the magistrate's little dog. The garrison of the Queen's West India Regiment became panic stricken, and, regardless of disgracing their Zouave uniforms, they rushed helter-skelter to the lower corner of the stockade, where, huddled together like so many sheep, they formed a good mark for the Mayas, provided they had had anything to shoot with besides cheap Belgian shot-guns. The guns, however, were fairly effective, at least as far as noise was concerned. It would have been difficult to have surmised the result of the action, or its final effect upon those splendid uniforms, had the scene not been taken in quietly by the two ex-Confederate soldier sugar-planters.

Fighters from "way back," and sorry to see even a detachment of the Queen's West India Regiment annihilated, the sugar-planters seized their repeating rifles and took up positions behind stumps overlooking the Indians. Simultaneous reports of the American rifles startled the

war-bent Mayas. Scarcely had they time to recover from their surprise at hearing rifles crack behind them, than the rifles cracked again. The Indians turned and looked about for their daring foe, but another brace of rifle shots from behind, and a splintering of log-wood in front, warned them that they were on the wrong side of the wood-pile. There followed a scrambling of calico-shirted Mayas, and the battle was over. The American sugar-planters advanced and received the congratulations of the Queen's soldiers, who now declared their willingness to go and avenge themselves upon the cowardly Mayas who had taken a mean advantage of them.

Belize was startled by the news of this battle, and the Governor ordered the English major-in-command of the force at Belize, to reinforce the detachment on the frontier, and proceed at once across the Rio Hondo to punish the daring invaders. The detachment was equipped, and in due time crossed the river and penetrated the forest wilds. But the trail through the woods was bad, marching impossible, and progress slow. It remains unrecorded how much of the dark and gloomy forest had been penetrated when suddenly the shrill notes of the bugle sounded strangely under the sombre trees. The negro soldiers halted, listened, and, interpreting the bugle sound wrongly, thought the savages were upon them and a general panic ensued. The forest was too dense for them to discern their enemies, if there had been any, and so they fled.

Dangling turbans upon tree limbs, a bit of blue cloth here, and a gleaming bayonet there, scattered cartridges, and cartridge boxes, marked the way they retreated. Helter-skelter they made their way back across the Rio Hondo in a sad plight. The result of this campaign was soon learned in Belize, to the consternation of everybody. An investigation was called for, and the commander of the expedition, the English major, was allowed to quietly resign his commission in the service, it being whispered that this was not the only time that he had been guilty of either mismanagement or cowardice. While the authorities were recovering from the shock of the ignoble defeat of the Queen's proud negroes, an investigation being made, it suddenly occurred to the colonists that Yucatan was a part of Mexico, and, consequently, Her Britannic Majesty was entitled to indemnity for the invasion of her territory and the attack upon her frontier garrison. Evidence was taken to prove the damage done by the Indians, and a sheaf of correspondence was sent to the Mexican government stating England's claims. The Mexicans courteously replied that the Mayas were rebels whom they, themselves, had been unable to subdue, and that the English had a perfect right to chastise them for any of their depredations, even intimating that in case the English needed help they would send their soldiers to coöperate with them.

The Mayas, oblivious of the fact that they had defeated the Queen's West India troops when they had fled so precipitately through the forest at the mistaken sound of a bugle-call, and believing that it was they, themselves, who had been defeated by the attack of the Americans in their rear, remained sulkily within their own territory, while these claims for indemnity were being made. At last, needing some more calico and gunpowder, and an accordeon or two, a delegation of them cautiously approached the English frontier settlement. Finding no warlike demonstration against them, they made their purchases, and when questioned concerning their previous raid upon the frontier settlement, they gravely expressed surprise, asserting their ignorance of the event, and when appearing to be convinced that such a raid had occurred, they declared that it must have been by a tribe of vagabond Indians inhabiting the country to their west, with whom they were not on friendly terms. Expressing sincere and fervent love for the English, they declared that the Queen's troops should be sent to whip these audacious vagabonds. But the colonists had had enough of Indian warfare; so, taking advantage of the friendly disposition of their former enemies, in addition to supplying their needs, they solicited the privilege of cutting woods in their forest. The Mayas could see no harm in this, so exploring parties were sent into Yucatan, soon to be followed by the Queen's commissioned officers.

Of these proceedings the Mexican government received sundry reports, and finally mildly protested against the English encroaching upon her territory. England either ignored these protests, or

replied that she was in no way encroaching upon Mexican territory; so the merchants of Belize continued to cut log-wood north of the Rio Hondo, and finally negotiated a treaty with the Mayas, by which their right to exploit the Yucatan forest, for a small compensation, was granted by Mexico's rebellious Indians.

Following this, a prominent and respected Mexican merchant, a native of Yucatan, well acquainted with its political history, sought and obtained from the Mexican government the exclusive right to exploit all, or any, of the valuable woods of the Yucatan forest. Immediately afterwards he arrived in Belize, presented his credentials to the government, and, in turn, applied to the local court for an injunction restraining the English merchants from cutting any more of the log-wood to the north of the Rio Hondo. In his petition he showed that the territory was, beyond question, a part of Mexico, that the Indians were Mexican outlaws, and that the colonists had no right to exploit woods belonging to Mexico, and, moreover, that his government had invested in him the exclusive right of those forests for a period of fifteen years. The Mexican spent some months in carrying the case through the courts of Belize only to have the superior court refuse the granting of the injunction.

At that time, Belize possessed a weekly paper, edited and printed by one Claud Goodrich, an American wanderer, who had found his way into the colony, and, by hard work and persistent industry, had become proprietor of a printing office. He called his paper the Belize "Independent," and when the Mexican litigant came to his office with what would be termed "a scoop" by one of our metropolitan dailies, the American editor saw no harm in publishing it. It proved to be a lengthy document, and it required all the facilities of the printing office to bring out the week's issue with the Mexican's contribution. Just before the appearance of the paper, the Mexican sailed for Yucatan, and then the paper appeared to the horrifying of all Her Majesty's representatives and subjects. The Yankee printer had actually published the Mexican's protest to what he had considered a bunco game, backed up by Her Majesty's courts, to do him and his country out of the territory which had been a part of Mexico for centuries. Such reflections, as the lengthy protest cast upon those loyal colonists, could not be tolerated for a moment, and, as the author had departed, poor old Goodrich was dragged from his ink and types to be taken before the stern magistrate and fined the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars. It nearly bankrupted the old printer to raise the sum, but he paid it, vowing never to print any news again. This vow he kept until his death, although his paper continued to appear.

The people of Belize have a queer idea of justice. As there is no bar to prepare men for the bench, the judges are not always lawyers, but, as I have heretofore remarked, the Queen's negroes are eminently gifted as such, and they frequently tumble into a lawsuit with glee, ready, at the least provocation, to discuss their rights and liberties as Queen's subjects at the bar. Among the many ludicrous cases which I recall, I mention one that occurred several years ago. An American shopkeeper, of German origin, accustomed to take an occasional glass, which, by the way, everybody takes more or less frequently in Belize, owned a large mongrel dog, in which the Newfoundland species predominated. He was a great, clumsy, blear-eyed brute, incapable of doing either good or harm. One day, his master was trying to enliven the dog's spirits by jerking his tail, pulling his ears, and tumbling him about generally, when one of Her Majesty's subjects approached and commented upon the worthlessness of the dog. The American, thereupon, to illustrate the dog's intelligence, pointed to the negro and commanded the mongrel to "speak to him." Thereupon the great shaggy animal raised himself up like a bear, and before the negro could step out of the way, dropped his paws upon his breast, and thrusting his nose close to the negro's face, said — "boo!" and then dropped to the ground. The negro forthwith declared that the American had set the dog upon him, and, making out a complaint to that effect, the defendant was summoned before the court, found guilty and fined.

The sanitary conditions of Belize are excellent, everything tending to preserve good health being regulated by law, though, in my own experience, I have found the prevailing fevers of the trop-

ical coasts no less trying there than in the neighboring ports, where no precautions whatever are taken. The few whites who live in the colony are mostly of Scotch origin, as was old Peter Wallace, the buccaneer wood-cutter. They are a sturdy, honest race, generally disliked by foreigners, but why, I do not quite understand. I have often asked the question, only to receive the reply that they are clannish; but this being a virtue which Americans sadly lack, I do not see why it should lead to a dislike of the Scotchmen.

There is scarcely any feeling in the colony with regard to color. It is indeed said, that there is not a single creole family a generation old which does not contain some infusion of negro blood. It is not unusual for a white man to marry a negro woman, or to see a young English clerk treating his mulatto girl to ice-cream. The people are usually happy and orderly, and profess a great love for the Queen. A couple of years ago they indulged in a riot, owing to some labor agitation, but the extent of their demonstrations was confined to the entering one of the principal stores and taking some bolts of calico which the rioters trailed up and down the streets like huge ribbons. This caused great excitement, and a detachment of the West Indian negroes was again dispatched from Jamaica to preserve order.

THOMAS R. DAWLEY, JR.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN IN LITERATURE:

HISTORIC, POETIC, AND FICTITIOUS (*Concluded*)*

ANOTHER individual character, isolated, yet indispensable, in Cooper's tales, is the inimitable Gamut, the singing master. David Gamut! It might have been said of him that the Lord "made use of the foolish to confound the mighty;" for none but Gamut could stand serenely upon a bloody field of slaughter, and, amid a tragedy of terrors, calm the savage fury of an Indian with the melody of a pitchpipe! And, yet, we are impressed that the author did not intend that he should be a fool; for frequently he displays unusual intellectual power.

We are introduced to him in the first chapter. In order that the reader may at once grasp his "profile, his stature, and his mien," we quote, in part, the author's description of him: —

> "The person of this individual was, to the last degree, ungainly, without being, in any particular manner, deformed. He had all the bones and joints of other men, without any of their proportions. Erect, his stature surpassed that of his fellows; though, seated, he appeared reduced within the ordinary limits of the race. . . . His head was large; his shoulders narrow; his arms long and dangling."

Such was David Gamut. At his expense, the travellers had many a merry laugh; though "Hawkeye," alone, seems to have extracted the real essence from his association with this interesting character, who more than once gave him occasion to indulge that silent, yet hearty laugh, so characteristic of the generous woodsman.

David's soul was full of music. He thought the power of sacred music adequate to quell alike the raging elements and the angry passions of the savage. With his "tooting we'pon" he "tooted" himself out of the narrative; and we love to think of him as indulging his fondness for psalmody; for music was the solace of his unique existence.

Chingachgook, "le gros Serpent," is represented as a noble, wise, and sagacious Indian. His affection for his son, Uncas, and his love for his nation which was fast passing from earth, deepen our admiration for his character. Upon one occasion, in battle, he is described as an "image, armed in the emblematic panoply of death." The qualities of his character are intensified by the touching pathos shed around him in "The Pioneers" as "Indian John."

In Magua the treachery of Indian character bursts forth in all its majesty upon every feature. We suspect his silent mien and cloudy visage from the first, and our suspicions are early verified. It has been said that Cooper has invested the Indian with loftier qualities than he really possessed; but treachery,

* Continued from the November (1897) issue (page 128, Vol. VI.)

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cruelty, and malignant revenge could not have been blended into a more majestic conception than the character of this wily savage. He is sagacious, intellectual, endowed with fine perceptive power. His weaker brethren are deluded by appeals to their superstition; but Magua smiles grimly at what are to him but the ill-disguised artifices of the enemy. He displays individuality and force of character; but, withal, there is a respectable depravity, an intelligent villainy, in his nature, that renders him repulsive in the highest degree. The representation of political ingenuity, of the power to win men to one's own way of thinking, illustrated in this character, is a superb stroke. His weakness for "fire-water" deprives him of the respect and confidence of his tribe, and he becomes a deserter; but, by the force of his eloquence, he reinstates himself, and becomes even more powerful than ever. Stimulated by the thirst for revenge, he speaks of the dead who have fallen in battle, of their valor, and of the necessity to avenge their death. Artfully he contrives to strike those chords which he knows will vibrate in the Indian's breast, and thus regains their sympathy and confidence. He so skilfully blends their natural sympathies with their religious superstitions, that the last vestige of humanity that might at other times exist in them, is lost in the desire for revenge. In him, intellect, skill, and cunning, are united in the sublimest discord with the wild, bloodthirsty spirit of the savage.

This is the character of the famous "Le Renard subtil," so skilfully constructed and presented in "The Last of the Mohicans." Nor do we regret the tragic end to which he is brought. It is fitting that such a culmination should crown such a life. Our hearts beat rapidly for a moment: Le Renard clings to a shrub upon the brow of a precipice; a crash from the rifle of "Hawkeye;" a quiver of the giant frame; and the body of the vicious Indian, "cutting the air with its head downwards" for an instant, "glided past the fringe of shrubbery which clung to the mountain, in its rapid flight to destruction!"

Uncas, "the Last of the Mohicans," develops into the hero of the story; though, at first, we would suppose that Hawkeye bore this honor. He is an extraordinary youth, possessing the Indian qualities that characterized his old father, "the great Serpent," but inheriting also his superior endowments. Of so noble a mien is he, that the ingenuous Alice exclaims: "I could sleep in peace with such a fearless and generous-looking youth for my sentinel!" Cooper's conception and delineation of this character is magnificent. It is so admirably sustained throughout that it grows on us with the unfolding of the narrative; and Uncas gradually develops into a hero, for whom we have the profoundest admiration. "His figure is upright and flexible, graceful and unrestrained in the attitudes and movements of nature." His eye is "dark, glancing, fearless, alike terrible and calm." His haughty features, "pure in their native red," are bold and high, and his ample forehead adds the mien of dignity. He was a being that might have existed "in the benighted vale of ignorance, but could not be one who would willingly devote his rich, natural gifts to the purposes of wanton treachery." We gaze upon him as "upon some precious relic of the Grecian chisel, to which life has been imparted by the intervention of a miracle."

Uncas was an "unblemished specimen of the noblest proportions of man." He loves the beautiful Cora; but his love he lives and does not speak. The little party have just passed through a fierce and bloody encounter, and the two sisters, rescued from an awful death, are clasped in each other's arms in a scene of melting tenderness, while Uncas stands "fresh and blood-stained from the combat, a calm and apparently unmoved looker-on, yet with eyes that had already lost their fierceness, and were beaming with a sympathy that elevated him far above the intelligence of his nation." We spoke of his love for Cora: can we hope that he is loved in return? Ah, no! We have long since seen the flush mount her cheek, while within her bosom lingered a pang, as she watched the affection of Duncan Heyward gradually, but surely, entwine itself about the person and existence of her lovely, golden-haired sister.

If it be true that Cooper has drawn upon his imagination, and in any case given to the Indian unmerited excellencies, it is in the character of Uncas. But in fiction we seek the ideal; and yet, how often, indeed, does the supposed ideal fall short of the real!

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The book closes unsatisfactorily to the tender-hearted reader; for to him the magnificent description of funeral rites and ceremonies does not suffice to brighten the gloom which has fallen upon the whole story owing to the untimely deaths, of Uncas and Cora. We close the book with a feeling of sadness; and yet it leaves an impression that can hardly ever be effaced. It is a book that may be read again and again, and each time with increasing interest and fascination.

John S. C. Abbott has written a series of biographical histories, and among them is a work entitled "History of King Philip," in which he reviews the earlier annals of the New England settlements. Beginning with the arrival of the "Pilgrims" on the American coast, he leads up, in a careful and systematic way, to "King Philip's War," the nucleus of the narrative. Our attention is first arrested by the pure and elegant style characteristic of Abbott's writings. Straightforward, simple, easy, it bears an unmistakable air of reality; and thus arises one of the liveliest charms attendant upon a perusal of his historical works — the conviction that we are reading the truth; though we must admit that, in a few cases, Abbott makes fact yield to fancy. The charm of history rests in its reality; and when presented in a clear, forcible, and attractive manner, its incidents fix themselves in the mind with undying associations. Thus it is that we revel in the simple yet beautiful narratives of the writer under consideration. He is ever ready to intersperse the narration of thrilling incidents with graphic descriptions of natural scenery, or impressive portrayals of human character. Referring to the arrival of the Pilgrims, he says that, landing upon the rocky shore, they faced the dreary winter's blasts in search of freedom of spirit and worship, little dreaming of the immortality they were that day conferring upon themselves. The frail ship from which they were disembarking on that memorable day (Friday, Dec. 22, 1620), was the only tie that bound them to the mother-country. "Their parting hymn," adds Abbott, "swelling, as it did, from gushing hearts and trembling lips, blended in harmony with the moan of the wind and the wash of the wave, and fell, we cannot doubt, as an accepted melody on the ear of God."

From the first the settlers were harassed by the fierce red men of the forest, and constant precaution was necessary to protect life and property from their unsparing ravages. The Indian had learned to hate the white man as his bitterest foe, for he remembered with keen recollections the cruelty of earlier adventurers. The history introduces us to the tribe to which the hero of the story belonged, in a brief, but characteristic, description of the old chief Massassoit, sachem of the Wampanowags, and father of Philip. Between this tribe and the settlers a friendly alliance arose, which continued until Massassoit's death, when his younger son, Philip, began preparations for the extermination of the English on the American continent. For two long and weary years, as we know, he made the colonists feel the truth that

> "'Tis dangerous to rouse the lion;
> Deadly to cross the tiger's path,
> But the most terrible of terrors
> Is man, himself, in his wildest wrath!"

The charm of Abbott's descriptive power compels our admiration and a feeling of pride when we contemplate the primeval glory of the American continent. Once the forests, in their majesty and beauty, the streams and lakes, in their original solitude, were untrod, and even unseen, save by the lonely native, when "beneath the moon, which then, as now, silvered the mound, 'the Indian lover wooed his dusky maid.'" Graphically, our author contrasts those ancient days with the busy, bustling, heaving world of motion that now usurps the sacred hunting grounds. Then, "generation after generation of the moccasined savage, with silent tread, threaded his way, delighting in the gloom which no ray of sun could penetrate, in the silence interrupted only by the cry of the wild beast in his lair, and awed by the marvellous beauty of lakes and streams, framed in mountains and fringed with forests, where waterfowl of every variety of note and plumage floated buoyant upon the wave, and pierced the air with monotonous and melancholy song."

With equal fascination do we contemplate the character of the savage man, in his ferocity and treachery, in his majesty and nobility, as it is magically unfolded in the almost unconscious narrative. We

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wonder at the unequalled cunning and forest skill of the wily savage, as he "glided as noiselessly as the summer breezes into the villages to work destruction and death." The secret of the Indian's power was in surprise; and history records no sadder scene than the devastation of Essex County, and the massacre of its band of young men, with the freshness of boyhood still upon them, who perished in the carnage of Deerfield, "where," says Abbott, "the brook ran crimson with their gore," and was appropriately named "Bloody Brook."

Again we pause to contemplate a scene from which no painter could turn with indifference. It is the death of Alexander, the Wampanowag chieftain. "The sublimity of the forest, the glassy stream, meandering beneath the over-shadowing trees, the bark canoes of the natives moored to the shore;"—all presented a scene of silent, awful grandeur! The brown-hued warriors realized that their chieftain was dying—dying of a broken heart. "They placed him on a grassy mound, beneath a majestic tree, and in silence the stoical warriors gathered around to witness the departure of his spirit to the realms of the red man's immortality." And, as the proud chief dies, we are touched with the constancy of his wife, "the beautiful Wetamoo, holding in her lap the head of her dying lord as she wiped his clammy brow, nursing those emotions of revenge which finally desolated the three colonies with flame, blood, and war." At the opening of the war, her womanly spirit was flushed with hope and pride as she reviewed the band of sturdy warriors, which she, herself, as a princess, led proudly into the field; but, towards its close, she was hiding in swamps and thickets, her power broken, and attended by a handful of dejected and despairing followers. Sad, broken-hearted, hunted like a beast, she was yet too proud to be captured; and, when the English came upon her by surprise and made her few warriors prisoners, she heroically threw off her clothing, and, seizing a broken piece of wood, plunged into the river. But she was exhausted; her strong arm failed, and she sank beneath the waves. "Her body, like a bronze statue of marvellous symmetry, was soon after found washed upon the shore."

The native skill, beauty, and eloquence of the Indian inevitably wastes away before the advance of civilization. Leave him to his forest home, hunting grounds, and superstitions, and he lives and prospers; touch him with the finger of civilization, and he melts away beneath its influence. But the Indian once possessed noble traits. King Philip was a remarkable man, highly endowed with intellectual power and cunning. His foresight was wonderful. Our author tells us that, at one time, he was seriously considering the adoption of Christianity; but foreseeing that, with the introduction of the Christian religion, characteristic Indian life and custom must forever die, he clung to the views of his old father, and to the end bitterly opposed the Christian faith. He seemed to understand the terms of the Gospel,—for he comprehended clearly English language and ideas.

Unrelenting in the persecution of his enemies, unsparing in his work of destruction of life and property, he yet had a tender affection for those he loved and who had not injured him. This is illustrated in the remarkable way in which he protected the town of Fowling Pond, now known as Raynham. In his excursions, he had become acquainted with a family of the name of Leonard, who lived in the town. They had treated him and his followers with the greatest kindness, repairing their guns, and furnishing them with such things as the Indian prized most highly. Philip became much attached to the family, and, lest they should be exposed to danger, he spared the whole place, while all around the crackling flames and cries of agony told of his unappeasable wrath. This act bespeaks a magnanimous character.

Philip entered upon the war with reluctance; but, foreseeing that the success of the white man meant the destruction of his liberties, with the extermination of his beloved race, he came to regard war as a necessity. "With a sagacity that might excite the envy of the ablest of European diplomats, he bound together various heterogeneous and hostile tribes, and guided all their energies." "His mode of making war," says an authority, "was secret and terrible. He seemed like the demon of destruction hurling his bolts in the darkness." Yet he was generous, noble, and, as we have said, magnanimous. He nevertheless marked his pathway with crimson stains upon the snow,

and with the groans of wounded and dying enemies; but never, in all this, transcending the limits of Indian warfare, and always constant and faithful to those who treated him with kindness.

Such is the picture of Philip, as presented by our historian. Around the Indian chief cluster the design and interest of the whole book, and so tragic and grand a circle of events could never cluster about a more majestic embodiment of human character. Abbott here quotes from Francis Baylies, as follows:—

"We now sit in his seats and occupy his lands; the lands which afforded a bare subsistence to a few wandering savages can now support thousands of civilized people. The aggregate happiness of man is increased, and the designs of Providence are fulfilled when this fair domain is held by those who know its use; surely, we may be permitted, at this day, to lament the fate of him who was once the lord of our woods and our streams, and who, if he wrought much mischief to our forefathers, loved some of our race, and wept for their misfortunes!"

A quotation from this author, and we close our discussion of the brave chief who fell, in his native wood, by the leaden messenger, fired from the hand of one of his own race:

"Thus, fell Pometacom, perhaps the most illustrious savage on the North American Continent. The interposition of Providence alone seems to have prevented him from exterminating the whole English race. Though his character has been described only by those who were exasperated against him to the highest degree, still it is evident that he possessed many of the noblest qualities that can embellish human nature."

In the discussion of Abbott's "History of King Philip," I have devoted considerable space to quotations and to an exposition of the author's treatment, thinking that to be the most effective way of illustrating the merits and characteristics of the book. To my mind, its faults are few, though it is marked, as most literary productions are, by some deficiencies. It presents information in a concrete and vivid form; it delineates character in an easy, unconscious unfolding of circumstances and their varied relations; and, like the author's History of Josephine, a work also of high merit, it illustrates his clear, straightforward, and impressive style of composition.

We now shift the scene to Mexico, and shall briefly consider the literature concerning the remarkable people who once flourished upon its lofty table-lands and in its enchanting valleys. In writing of the Mexican Indian, no one has excelled Prescott. There has hardly been a more valuable contribution to American literature than the "History of the Conquest of Mexico," from the pen of this author. It is, indeed, remarkable, as are all his works, when we remember the difficulties under which he labored in their production. Though almost entirely deprived of eye-sight, he devoted ten years to laborious investigation, to the examination of old manuscripts, and to careful and untiring revision; the result being, "The Conquest of Peru," and the "History of the Conquest of Mexico," both of which were received with high favor.

For many reasons the "Conquest of Mexico" is among the most important and interesting of all his productions. The physical geography, the variety of soil and climate, its mineral wealth, grand scenery, and the character of the ancient inhabitants of the country, occupy an introduction to the work, which embraces nearly the whole of the first volume. Elegance of language and grandeur of style mark the book throughout, while the vividness and accuracy of detail in its descriptions give fascination to each volume. In the introduction, to which we have alluded, there is a description of Mexico, its beautiful scenery and natural resources, which prepares the mind of the reader for the great events which are to follow by making him familiar with the natural theatre in which they occurred.

The history of the Aztecs and Tezcucans exhibits some of the nearest approaches to civilization found among the former inhabitants of the North American continent. Numerous races, whose history is enveloped in profound mystery, are supposed to have existed before the advent of the Aztec. The Toltecs, of whom little is known, appear to have come from a northwesterly direction; and they bear evidence of having attained a high degree of civilization, and of having "passed through a circle of revolutions comparable to that of which the valley of the Euphrates, and other parts of Asia, were anciently the scene." Their history and the monuments left by them furnish a wide field for critical investigation.

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Our author continues, with fine descriptive displays, to allure us on to his accurate and comprehensive account of this ancient race of Indians. They have left us no written record, a circumstance not strange, though geologists, ethnologists, and historians generally agree that the Toltecs were proficient in various arts. Ruins of noble edifices, found in all parts of New Spain, are referred to this people.

The Toltec disappeared from the land as silently as he had come into it, and his place was taken in rapid succession by other races from the Northwest, perhaps of the same great family. The most important of these were the Aztecs and the Tezcucans; and with them the modern student of literature is familiar. The Aztecs, or Mexicans, eventually absorbed the others, and it is with this people that the "History of the Conquest" is especially concerned.

Prescott proceeds to give an excellent account of the Aztec empire, its system of government, laws and revenues, judicial and military institutions, religion, and all important points in its wonderful and interesting civilization; showing that its people were far in advance of the wandering tribes of North America. While they were thus advanced, they were yet benighted heathen, offering human sacrifices, and making of the victim's body a contribution to a repast "teeming with delicious beverages and delicate viands, prepared with art, and attended by both sexes, who conducted themselves with all the decorum of civilized life." Surely, refinement and loathsome barbarism were never so profanely mingled!

Our author says: "Those familiar with the modern Mexicans will find it difficult to conceive that the nation should ever have been capable of devising the enlightened polity which we have been considering. But, they should remember that, in the Mexicans of our day, they see only a conquered race; as different from their ancestors as the modern Egyptians from those who built,—I will not say the tasteless pyramids,—but the temples and palaces whose magnificent wrecks strew the borders of the Nile, at Luxor and at Karnac.

So it is with the Mexican Indian. He sinks and wastes away under foreign influences. This, however, is characteristic of all the Indian tribes. But Spanish domination has so destroyed the vitalizing energy of the Mexican race, that it has crumbled into a mouldering mass, the mere remnant of a once flourishing people. Their individuality and moral characteristics have been effaced, and little is left to identify them with their illustrious ancestry.

The history proper opens with an account of Spain under Charles the Fifth, giving us ample preparation for the coming conquest, in which the Spaniards were to engage. We are introduced, also, to the hero of the Conquest, Hernando Cortés, one of the most prominent figures in Spanish history. Some one has called the entire work an Indian romance, with Cortés as its hero. Such, even, is the impression received from a superficial reading; but, upon careful examination, its force and completeness and its evident accuracy take hold upon the reader; and the central figure in such a drama of events, we must admit, could not have been other than a hero.

Here is Prescott's portrait of him: "Cortés was at this time thirty-three years of age. In stature he was rather above the middle size. His complexion was pale, and his large, dark eyes gave an expression of gravity to his countenance, not to have been expected in one of his cheerful temperament. . . . His chest was deep, his shoulders broad, his frame muscular and well proportioned. . . . His manners, frank and soldier-like, concealed a cool and most calculating spirit. With his gayest humor he mingled an air of settled resolution, which made all those who approached him feel that they must obey, and which infused something like awe into the attachment of his most devoted followers. Such a combination, in which love was tempered by authority, was the one probably best calculated to inspire devotion in the turbulent spirits among whom his lot was cast."

The latter part of the first volume, and all of the second, are devoted to a description of the entrance into Mexico and of the first siege; and, from the beginning, Prescott begins to display his wonderful powers in narrating the thrilling experiences incident to the journey from the coast to the capital city. We begin at once to see the majesty of Indian treachery, the strange beauty of his character, as he curiously observes the white men, or rushes furiously upon them in battle. Prescott's descriptions are always

vigorous, forceful, and impressive. He possessed a power granted to but few historians.

From the day on which the Spaniards land on the Mexican coasts, the character and personality of Montezuma begin to dawn upon us. The author has artfully, and we believe truthfully, interwoven this person into the fabric of his narrative; and without him the story would be incomplete. Montezuma was emperor of the vast empire of the Aztecs. He was the last but one of an illustrious line of royal princes under whom the kingdom had risen to glory, a glory soon to fade, a kingdom soon to crumble beneath the superior science and civilization of the invader.

Montezuma seems to have been impressed with the belief that the Spaniards were the children of a famous god, of fair countenance and great power, and that they had come to overthrow the realm in fulfilment of the prophesies of ancient Aztec priests. In consequence, he becomes powerless to resist, and is taken prisoner within his own palace. He is, however, treated by the Spaniards with reverence and even affection. His character is skilfully sketched in the narrative; and when he is forsaken by his own kin, and pines away under mortification, we feel a sympathy for the fallen monarch; and, left alone with him as he sadly takes leave of life, we could almost wish that Castilian hands had never torn his kingdom from him, nor despoiled his magnificent city.

As the history progresses, we are constantly diverted from the regular course of the narrative to contemplate some unusual display of the characteristic Indian nature, or some event of an amusing or pathetic character. Such was the execution of the young chief Xicotencotl. Like Guatemozin, he illustrated the flower of Indian soldiery; his sagacity and prudence would have done honor to older chieftains; his bravery was unequalled by the bravest. His extraordinary qualities win our admiration. But he was treacherous from the outset; and, being apprehended as the instigator of a defection among the troops, he was arrested, tried, and condemned to die. Thus his career ends prematurely, while yet in the flower of his age.

Prescott's description of the final siege and surrender of Mexico is perhaps unsurpassed in history, and has scarcely an equal in fiction, unless it be that of the castle of Front de Bœuf, so graphically presented in Scott's "Ivanhoe."

Nowhere do we find so vividly depicted the majesty of Indian character as in this memorable siege. For weeks and months they resist, and refuse to surrender. Their supplies, after a time, begin to fail; and the watchfulness of Cortés gradually shuts off all communication with the surrounding country. Starvation stares them in the face; death begins its work; but they resolve to die and rot within the walls, rather than surrender. With the "desperation and the energy of despair," they maintain their bitter yet failing resistance, amid death and destruction and the stench of decaying bodies.

The Indian's hatred for his Indian enemy is as bitter and unrelenting as for the white man. The Tlascalan allies of Cortés were the declared enemies of the Mexicans, though at this time they were the subjects of Montezuma. The wasting and hungry Aztecs, beholding, with impotent rage, the destruction of their lordly edifices and venerated temples, and all that was dear to them ruthlessly swept away by these detested Tlascalans, cried out bitterly: "Go on; the more you destroy, the more you will have to build up again hereafter. If we conquer, you will build for us; and, if your white friends conquer, they will make you do as much for them."

Finally, Guatemozin, the wonderful Indian chieftain and lately crowned emperor of the Aztecs, is captured, and the siege ends. With their leader in fetters, the energies of the Indian are instantly paralyzed, yet, says Prescott, he "scorned to ask for mercy, and glared on the invader with the sullen ferocity of the wounded tiger that the huntsmen have tracked to his forest cave."

Prescott closes his History with an extended biography of Cortés, the hero of the Conquest; an act for which he has been sharply criticised. But he says: "I cannot regret that I have adopted this course; since, whatever lustre the Conquest may reflect on Cortés as a military achievement, it gives but an imperfect idea of his enlightened spirit and of his comprehensive and versatile genius."

But we must bring to a close our review of the literature concerning the

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North American Indian. From Marcius Wilson, and other historians, we have learned of the nature, the origin, and the antiquities of the vast numbers of Indian tribes that from a remote past have dwelt upon the Western Continent; of their customs, laws, and institutions of various kinds. Being thus prepared for further contemplation of the Indian, we have enjoyed a diversion in the smooth liquid, and mysterious poetry inspired by the mystery and sentimentality of the Indian nature. From poetry we passed into the realm of fiction, where Helen Jackson, Lew Wallace, and Fenimore Cooper have excelled. In this department of our subject, Cooper has risen superior to all others; and while we would not depreciate the productions of other and worthy pens, we must consider Cooper as the mastercraftsman in American fiction, and Prescott the mastercraftsman in American history, in the spheres in which they individually and so successfully labored.

In this enumeration, it will be seen, that we have a more complete and interesting literature on the Indian than one would suspect upon a mere superficial examination. Investigation reveals a wealth of literary material still embosomed in the history and character of the Indian, whom we have been taught to consider as fast fading from the earth. Gradually driven westward, he slowly descends the slope of the Rockies, one by one gathering to the happy hunting-grounds of the hereafter. Nevertheless, if he would but cast a look backward, he might see still alive nigh three hundred thousand of his countrymen, though many of them forsaking the chase and the canoe for other employments in our modern civilization, before whose advance he and his forefathers have withered away.

There are for America in the near future rich triumphs in the field of literature; and when the diadem of her civilization shall have been completed, none of its jewels, we are sure, will sparkle more brightly than those set by American genius, inspired by the deeds of our immortal heroes, by the wonderful antiquity of our continent, and by the character and history of its ancient inhabitants.

OLIN S. DEAN.

WOMEN IN SOME OF THEIR NEW CALLINGS

So imperceptible, though so rapid, is the invasion of the industries and callings by women, that they are often found to have made good their footing on some fresh field of activity before their presence there is even suspected by the general public. They have just sustained a check in the refusal of the Sanitary Inspectors' Association of England, says the London "Daily Telegraph," to admit two lady candidates as colleagues; but the ladies in question were already employed as sanitary inspectors by the Corporation of Manchester, and the pretty evenly balanced division of opinion as to their eligibility as members of the association — represented by a vote of forty-nine against thirty-nine in favor of admitting them — shows that their time may come at last. As a matter of fact, women have made greater progress in such directions than is generally supposed. Thus, for instance, people are occasionally heard to remark with interest that the office of librarian has been added to the list of female vocations, in apparent ignorance that the duties of this post have been already undertaken by many women during the last few years. It is true that they sent no representative to the recent meeting of Library Associations, but that may be due, in the view of suspicious and satirical man, to the profound dissimulation of the sex. They, perhaps, do not care to excite needless jealousy among their masculine rivals by thus advertising the amount of success which they have achieved as competitors. If this secretive policy were really pursued it could not be for long. The occupation of one or two conspicuous places by them has, indeed, already drawn attention to the fact.

For some years women have held the post of librarian in many public libraries on both sides of the Atlantic, though the office does not seem to have been so often attained in England as in the United States. Many of the assistant librarians in the former country are women, as, for

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instance, at the Manchester Library; and it is reasonable to believe that there would be a good many more if anything like a technical training for the post existed. America, always practical, takes care to provide this. Here there is a library school which ensures a good appointment for those who graduate in it; but in England, after the usual fashion in such matters, no attempt has been as yet made to "specialize" in this form of education. If the librarian, male as well as female, is made and not born, they have both of them to make themselves; that is to say, to devise their own method of self-preparation, and to follow it without any sort of guidance from anybody else.

It is interesting to note that women are not repelled or discouraged by the dearth of systematic instruction. They are evidently beginning to train themselves for library work with as much efficiency as men; and, even if instruction in it were systematized and rendered scholastic, there is no reason to think that women would suffer by the change, but rather the reverse. The examinations for the English Post Office show that there is actually a smaller percentage of failures among female than among male competitors, the ratio being about seven to ten. In what great and increasing strength they are represented in the vast army of clerks, typewriters, and other kindred industries, is well known. Their inrush into literature and journalism is one of the most striking phenomena of the time. And, curiously enough, it is in these employments, rather than in the older and more "regular" professions where their intrusion, as it used to be called and thought, was most feared and denounced, that they most extensively establish themselves. Every now and again we hear of a woman being admitted to the Bar; and the female medical practitioner is, of course, known on both sides of the Atlantic. But how comparatively small an effect — nay, how infinitesimally small as compared with the exaggerated outcry against it — has the "movement" produced in either of these two directions!

We seem no nearer that dreaded day when courts and consulting-rooms will be filled with lady barristers and lady doctors than we were ten, fifteen, or twenty years ago. Nor is this so much because many women have failed to achieve success in the practice of law or medicine as because very few have tried. The truth is that the great body of the female seekers after employment have displayed infinitely more prudence and common-sense than the alarmists gave them credit for. Those of their number who were loudest and most aggressive in their denunciations of masculine selfishness and exclusiveness, and challenged the monopoly of man in every activity of life up to statesmanship itself, were never really representative of their sexes. Indeed, these clamorous champions have disappeared with the downfall of the barriers which they attacked, and the crowd of women who have silently swarmed in through the open gateway have wisely forborne any attempt to fulfill the programme of their too ambitious sisters.

In this business-like mode of procedure, lies the chief reason for regarding the movement as fraught with social possibilities of so serious a kind. Had women really been pursuing unattainable ideals during the last dozen years or so, had they been really striving after employments for which Nature has either physically or intellectually unfitted them, matters would soon adjust themselves — at the cost, no doubt, of a certain amount of bitter disappointment, but, in the long run, with salutary effects all round. What has happened has been the exact contrary. Women, in general, have had the foresight and self-knowledge to shun those paths which would have led them to failure as competitors with man, while they have crowded every avenue by which they could find the way to fields of industry in which they can meet him on fairly equal terms. And these are much more numerous than was formerly supposed.

If women cannot hope, save in a few exceptional cases, to achieve success in the learned and scientific professions, there are other callings which have now attained to the recognized status of professions wherein, as in the subsidiary industries attached to them, women are perfectly well qualified to succeed. On the borderland of literature and the arts, there lie, so to speak, whole tracts of employment which call for no other faculties and aptitudes than those which the two sexes possess in common, and with which women are sometimes even better endowed than men. Indeed, the

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examination statistics show that if not better endowed, they, at any rate, make better use of their endowment than their male rivals.

There is no reason, on the face of things, why women should not perform the duties of a clerk, a secretary or a librarian with an efficiency at least equal to that of men; while, apart from intellectual equality, they far surpass men in the moral virtue of patience, the most important equipment for the educational work which women are getting more and more into their own hands. In short, it is as certain as anything can be that the area of competition between the sexes will go on increasing; and, without doubt, the economical prospect which is thus opened out to us is distinctly disquieting. It is as idle, however, for men to complain of that competition as it would be unmanly to resent it. Women are in a majority, and the unmarried section of that majority is increasing even beyond the proportions of the surplus. While that remains so, an even larger and larger number of them must perforce seek means of self-support; and in so doing they have a right to demand that all impediments, save those which Nature has created, shall be removed from their path.

AMERICAN EXTRAVAGANCE

It is not a new thing to say that the Americans are the most extravagant people in the world. It is a fact recognized everywhere but in the United States; there they look upon themselves as rather economical and self-denying. People's ideas of extravagance vary very much, so that what one man considers prudent another regards a culpable luxury. Some think that if they spend every cent on things they covet or deem a need, short of going into debt, they are as careful as it is necessary to be; while others look upon everything that is not absolutely necessary as a more or less reckless extravagance. The latter class is somewhat rare among native-born Americans. Those holding this opinion will chiefly be found amid the foreign population. Webster defines extravagance as the "act of wandering beyond the proper limits," being "profuse in expenses," and "wasteful." These questions instantly arise: What are the "proper limits"? When do expenses become "profuse"? When "wasteful"? In the minds of many of the nation's friends across the water, most Americans go in most things beyond the proper limits; but it is not so often the case as they imagine. We are a wealthy and generous people, and to spend freely is not always extravagance. Owing to our wonderful resources, it is much easier to earn a dollar in America than in any other country, so we are more readily tempted to spend one. Where land is so abundant and productive, conditions cannot be so hard or poverty so widespread as in older lands.

Ian MacLaren speaks of the largeness and generosity of our people as being an outgrowth of the vastness and bountifulness of the land in which we live; but, however that may be, it is not the cause of our extravagance, in any great degree. The cause lies more in our unsettled social conditions. We have no class distinctions, that is, we do not recognize any officially. Everyone is, more or less, engaged in the struggle to reach the top, or, if not the top, as high as can well be reached. The only path to eminence, recognized by the vast majority, is in spending money, in building fine houses, in acquiring fine furniture or fine clothes, and in giving ostentatious entertainments. Almost everyone lives to the full extent of his means, and thus wanders far "beyond the proper limits." No matter what our income is, a large margin should be put by for the rainy day, which is sure to come in every life; unless this is done, a man cannot be living on any firm basis of self-respect. If this is the case, he must know that he leaves himself in a condition to become a burden on some one or more of his fellow-beings, thus doing them a great injustice. Yet, in the struggle for social position, this happens continually; little is saved, and nothing is laid by.

The race, we, of course, boast, is open to all; the washerwoman's son is just as likely to be the leading man in town as the banker's son — if he can make money enough to build a handsome house, dress

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his wife and children stylishly, and entertain sumptuously. It is what might be called the salaried class that are the greatest sinners, as they are the chief sufferers through extravagance. As long as they can live as their richer neighbors do, their social position, they think, is assured — always provided there is a certain amount of fitness for that position — so everything goes to maintain that status in society. Reverses are sure to come where instability is the rule, as in a new country. A railroad or an incorporated company changes hands, many of the office men, from the highest to the lowest, lose their places, and, for a time, are out of employment. Most of them, we shall find, have lived up to the last cent of their salaries — surely a fatuous extravagance. As a result, they pass out of sight, and have to begin again at the foot, to struggle for a bare living, — often, for just enough to eat.

Anyone can look around and see constantly occurring examples of this.

It is pretty much the same in all other occupations where men receive salaries and are not in business for themselves; they are liable to lose the salary at any time. Men who are in business for themselves frequently fail, because, before success warrants it, they are living in great style to win a certain social position — another fatal mistake. Those who are wealthy, having assured incomes that do not depend on salaries or business ventures, are really apt to be more prudent than those whose means are precarious. This is a singular fact, not easily to be explained.

Again, we are profuse and wasteful in our food. We buy too great a variety; we must have a number of extra things for each meal, simply because other people do, not because we particularly want them ourselves; there must be a continual change throughout the month; this change, in many cases, must include all kinds of delicacies, cakes, pies, sweetmeats, exotic fruits and other luxuries that involve a waste of money to purchase or of time to make, — a worse than waste of time to eat; for such food often only gratifies the palate; it supplies little nutriment to the body. Frequently, indeed, it develops a race of confirmed dyspeptics or ill-conditioned and failing hypochondriacs. To this unwholesome regimen is usually added excessive quantities of meat; — scarcely anywhere else do the people eat so much meat as we Americans eat; — this is also expensive and unhealthful. Of all this food enough, we know, is thrown away to keep a second family. This extravagant mode of living is all but universal, and this not only among the rich, but among people who have salaries of not much more than a thousand a year. They are all "wandering out of the proper limits," but it is so customary that no one seems to recognize the incongruity of it, or to confront the limitations of one's salary with one's style of living.

Besides the living expenses, comes the dressing in a corresponding style. The man must have half a dozen different suits; madame must have silks, laces, jewelry, and feathers. When she turns out on state occasions, she must do credit to her position, and, wherever the money or credit comes from, dress and look as fine as a princess. Of course, we Americans are all kings and queens in our own right; but it is difficult, and often rather trying, to keep up royal state on a thousand dollars a year! We are all trying, we know, to do it; the strain on some of us, however, is fast sapping the foundations of life. It would be well to forget our royal state; to set up a standard for ourselves; and to live — not as others are doing, — but according to our incomes; saving, at least, one-fourth every year; to place on our tables food that is simple, nutritious, healthful; to dress in suitable materials comfortably, though neatly and tastefully; to entertain hospitably, not in a grand reception once a year, which exhausts our nerves and depletes our pockets, for the time being, and in which the only satisfaction comes in the remark: "I'm glad it's over, now all my indebtedness is paid up." The time and peace of mind gained by a little independence, would go a long way in helping us to that culture of mind and heart so essential, yet, so often neglected, for the graver and more elevating things in this world.

We could almost wish for a return of the old sumptuary laws, when the town council regulated the inhabitants in their manner of living and dressing, not based, as those were, on social condition or employment, but on the amount of a man's income. The family whose income amounted to only five hundred or less

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should not be allowed to wear silk or velvet but should wear only calico, linsey-woolsey, or simple homespun. What good old times those were when the town council looked after the food and dress of the people as well as the weightier matters of the municipality. It is our boast that we are a free people; but if our common sense and insight into the fitness of things do not come to our rescue, we shall be lost. The effect of our frivolous mode of living and general thriftlessness, some one has admonished us, is telling on the national life. There is a want of stability, dignity, repose, about the American that makes him like a child who only looks for the gratification of the present moment — a child with great capabilities and exuberant spirits, yet uncontrolled and untrained.

What else can be expected from the home training of the children? Are they taught industry, economy, consideration for others? The father is too busy to give time or thought to his children, or to get any enjoyment out of life. His only duty, in too many instances, is to earn money for his wife to spend in furnishing her house as handsomely as her neighbors, to dress herself well, her children far better than their circumstances will justify, to entertain as elegantly as Mrs. Blank; for which she also slaves and economizes in things essential which cannot be taken note of by the world. For these things she grows old and wrinkled long before her time.

The mother, nowadays, is the slave of her children, and not, as she once was, their companion and monitor. If Dolly comes home from school discontented because her schoolmate, Lilian, has a lovely new frock, trimmed with lace, every effort is made to get Dolly a new frock, which will rival, if not eclipse, Miss Lilian's. If Johnny says: "Mat. Johnson has a bicycle, I want one, too," it is quite reason enough for getting him one, however inconvenient it may be, even if it has to be done on the instalment plan. The thing is to get what you want, no matter how it has to be done. Self-gratification is the lesson taught American children; not self-control and wise economy. With such training what are the men and women of to-morrow going to be? The faces of American women, foreign critics tell us, bear the traces of overwork and worry; they have an anxious, careworn look, that seriously detracts from their comeliness, renders them unattractive in spite of their good features and frequent refinement. When one looks at the root of the matter, it will be found that all this is caused by the constant struggle for something better than one can afford — rivalry with one's neighbors. Erase this from their lives, and they would be comparatively care-free and happy. The social struggle, the striving to do as others do, rules them, leaving neither time nor thought for simple pleasures. It pervades the race and fascinates them like gambling; in it money and time are wasted.

We are continually substituting tinsel and glare in life for worth and true enjoyment. Waste of life and material is going on, for the gratification of a petty ambition that is never satisfied, leaving nothing but bitterness of spirit, and discontent in its path.

The Germans may, in our estimation, be slow, but their sound common-sense, carefulness and thrift give them a depth, a solidity of character, that we, in the main, lack. Wisconsin is essentially a German State, in that the German population exceeds the American. Everywhere in the State can be seen the results of German thrift and economy. They are the rich people, their children will be the educated people, their grandchildren will be cultured and lead society, without social strife or individual extravagance. They will spend what they can easily afford, enjoy social life for the pleasure of each other's society, for the stimulus of congenial thought, for the love of beautiful things in art and nature, that involve no sacrifice of peace or principle to attain. These things can be enjoyed by the poorest if a little thought were given to ways and means. All true social enjoyment is lost with us in the effort to appear fine; to be stylish in dress and furniture; to show off. This is the first and most widespread cause of extravagance. The second is an uncontrolled desire to get what we want, regardless of consequences. The third cause is a moral laxity that seems to be infectious, the result, in the main, of a lack of moral training, with a levity of disposition, which, in spite of our seriousness, in most things is being infused into the national life.

We see all these phases exhibited in

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politics, in business, and in social life, and even in the management of our churches. In the latter it is so patent as to be a reproach to religion. The churches run in debt even more recklessly than do private individuals, not for charity or mission work, but for material comforts, elegance, fine music and other pleasant but not absolutely necessary things. To meet these varied devices for raising money, bazaars, fairs, and concerts are resorted to, together with suppers, dances, even card parties and other questionable modes of money-making entertainment. They do not even raise the money and then buy what they want, but get what they want, and then try to raise the money to pay for it. Ministers, if they do not actually encourage, countenance, this sort of thing, then stand in the pulpit and preach the Gospel of other-worldliness, simplicity and self-denial. When we see this state of things, we ask where shall we go to learn honesty and the elementary virtues? They are not taught in churches or in the schools, neither are they inculcated at home or acquired on the street. The imperious need of the day is for someone who will teach us thrift and economy,—the wise practice of getting money before we spend it,—the thrift of putting a little by for the days when sickness, reverses, or old age come upon us? What we also want is individuality enough to dictate our own modes of living, in accordance with our tastes and means. No nation ever lived in a more beautiful, bountiful land than ours, none ever teemed with a people so full of noble impulses, with the opportunities of individual development so high and great; yet like the "little rift within the lute" this widespread want of sound moral integrity, in regard to the income and out-go of money, may, unless checked, work our ruin. A sound financial basis, and thrift and good sense in its direction and control, should be sought for every institution, public and private.

CALEB CLARK.

STUDIES IN ART, SCIENCE, AND DISCOVERY:

THE BEGINNINGS OF PHOTOGRAPHY*

PHOTOGRAPHY, like all arts and sciences, was preceded by a long period of preparation. Facts were noticed and recorded, which, if followed up, might have led to valuable results many years before such were actually reached. These scattered facts finally led on to general interest and extended experiment until the discovery was made by several, independently and almost simultaneously.

Observations on the changes of colors in the light, especially in sunlight, were certainly made far back in the history of the human race. We may imagine that tan on the skin was one of the earliest effects noticed. Bleaching cloth by exposing it to the light of the sun is certainly a very old household expedient. As we come within the range of history, we frequently find mention made of the fading of colors, etc., in the light.

Nothing can be more instructive than to consider the evolution of a great discovery. How slow is the unfolding of new ideas! How many centuries are sometimes required for the germ to develop and to bring forth fruit!

An ingenious Italian philosopher, Giambattista della Porta (1540–1615), sowed the germ of photography when he invented the *camera obscura*. This was so simple, and the images given by it so beautiful, that it was greatly admired by all who saw it; and, in its improved form, which contained a convex lens fixed in the aperture, and a mirror to reverse the image, it was much used by painters as an aid to obtaining minute and exact delineation. Porta enthusiastically exclaimed: "We can discover nature's greatest secrets." What would he have said had he heard that the beautiful image would, one day, impress itself with far more delicacy and beauty than mortal hand could ever trace it!

Obtaining the image was one side of the problem, but were there any facts known, which inspired the hope that the image could be made to have an impression? It is said that Fabricus, an alchemist, observed the darkening of silver chloride in the light. In his "Book of

* See the article on Photography in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XVIII., page 821.

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the Metals," published in 1556, he states that the image, projected by a lens on the surface of *luna cornua* (silver chlorid), imprinted itself in black and gray, according to the intensity of the illumination of the various parts. That this experiment, of so great significance and leading almost directly to such vast discoveries, should have remained barren for two centuries, seems passing strange. Alchemy lacked the power to develop an observation into a discovery. Vogel, in his "Progress of Photography," claims that photography was first attempted in 1727 by a German physician, Johan Heinrich Schulze, of Halle, who copied handwriting by the aid of silver sattis. But we cannot agree with Vogel in ranking him as the "first inventor of photography," as he had made no advance in what was done by Fabricius, and, besides, only the lesser part of the problem had been attempted as no effort had even been made to fix the images. Yet, it is a pity that nothing further came of his experiments.

In 1777, Scheele, the great chemist, investigated, in a really scientific manner, the effect of light on silver chloride. He observed its changes and noticed the action of variously colored lights upon it. His statements as to the chemical nature of the change remained without alteration or important addition for nearly a century. Some chemists, but more especially artists, began to spend much time in trying to fix the image formed in the camera obscura. The dawn of this century found many of them engaged in this fascinating but seemingly impossible task.

To three men are due almost, if not quite, equal honors. If we read the story of the work of any one of them apart from the others, we shall not hesitate to put him down as the inventor of the art of photography. These men were Niepce, Daguerre, and Talbot.

Joseph Nicéphore Niepce (1765–1833) obtained the first pictures made by the action of light and fixed so as to be permanent. They were genuine photographs but were not beautiful to behold. For all that they were a success and the correctness of his ideas is shown by the fact that with only the modification of some of the details his process is in successful use to the present day. It is used for making plates to be printed from, which is exactly what he first designed it for. This man of real genius spent the best years of his life struggling bravely, but it was not given him to see much fruit of his labors. There is now no way of finding out all he did. Perhaps, after all, his most important work was his influence on his more fortunate partner, which it is impossible to estimate.

Louis Jaques Mandé Daguerre (1789–1851) was a painter and a successful one. In fact, he seems to have succeeded well in all of the many things he undertook. He had fine talent. He became interested in the fixing of the image given by the camera obscura, from his frequent use of it in executing his pictures. He exclaimed: "Why cannot I retain these inimitable wonders which the sun's rays draw at the focus of my lens? Why cannot I fix the image, engrave it forever?" He learned of some experiments made with silver chloride by Professor Charles, in 1780. Thenceforth, there was no rest for him. He worked on in vain. In 1826, Chevalier, an optician, told Daguerre what he knew of the work of Niepce. Daguerre wrote to him, but the letter was burned. A year later, it was followed by another, which found only a slightly better reception. They at least exchanged samples of their work. In September, 1827, Niepce, on his way to England, stopped in Paris and went to see Daguerre. While in England, his unwillingness to disclose the details of his process was all that prevented him from laying his results before the Royal Society of London. On his return to France, the firm of Niepce-Daguerre was formed. They were to share equally in whatever results they might obtain. They both then worked along the line of Niepce's previous work. Metal plates were covered with a film of bitumen of Judæa, by brushing them with a solution of it in oil of lavender, and dyeing. After exposure in a camera, they were developed by soaking in a mixture of one part (by volume) of oil of lavender to ten of white petroleum. This dissolved off all parts of the film on which the light had not shown. Perhaps the use of iodine to darken the portions of the silver plate thus exposed may have led Daguerre to notice the action of light on silver iodide thus prepared. Silver iodide, without the silver back of it, would never have tempted him, as light has very little visi-

ble effect on it. Niepce died July 5, 1833, after hearing of the partial success of his partner.

Complete success came at last in a totally unexpected way, by the accidental discovery of the developing action of mercury vapor. We are told that some insufficiently exposed plates were set aside in a dark cupboard. We can little imagine the surprise of Daguerre when, the next day, he found beautiful pictures brought out on the plates which previously showed no trace of anything. After patient search for the cause of this astonishing result, it was traced to a vessel of mercury on a lower shelf. Photography was a fact! It was announced before a joint meeting of the Academy of Fine Arts and the Academy of Sciences. The whole building and even its approaches were thronged. Artists and scientists were alike excited and amazed at the discovery, at once so simple and so beautiful. The news spread like wildfire. In a few months all the civilized world knew of it, and pictures were being taken in all the cities of Europe and even in America. The recent discovery of the X-rays is more than almost any other comparable with that of photography in the universal interest created, and in the rapidity with which it spread to all quarters of the globe. In photography everyone was interested. Everybody saw its utility and importance.

Daguerre's invention is rather unique in that, when presented to the world it seemed almost perfect, and was universally accepted just as he first gave it. No great changes or improvements were ever made in his process. Sodium thiosulphate soon replaced common salt and ammonia as the fixing solution; the addition of bromine vapor to that of iodine in making the film on the plate, greatly lessened the time of exposure, as did also the perfecting of the lens used. The pictures were afterwards gilded with "sel d'or" to lessen the danger of injury, but the process remained practically as when first announced until it was no more. The last Daguerreotype taken closely resembled the first, as did the way in which it was made to agree with the original directions. To Daguerre is due all honor for first presenting the world with a process of photography, practical, useful, and beautiful.

The third great name is that of William Henry Fox Talbot (1800–1877). He worked simultaneously in England. He had likewise experimented with the camera obscura and had set himself the same task. Like the others, he spent many years on the problem. He worked entirely independently and announced his results one month before Daguerre did his. They both worked with the same silver salts, but there was one great and fundamental difference. As a basis for the sensitive compound Daguerre used a silver plate, Talbot used paper. The Daguerreotype is a positive and must ever remain so, and, as such, is complete in itself and single. Talbot's product was a negative, and, as a means to an end, capable of giving many positives. The one may be compared to a beautiful drawing, while the other is an engraved plate from which to print. When first announced, Talbot's process was crude and seemed hardly worth notice compared with Daguerre's beautiful and finished work. This is why it failed to attract general attention. Yet, Talbot faced and overcame the same difficulties as to obtaining and fixing the pictures. He had succeeded, but the work was only begun. In later years he did much to perfect the processes, in which he was aided by many able helpers, before it was ever largely successful. Legend has it that Minerva sprang from the head of Jove, fullgrown and possessed of all her mature beauty and power; we may compare the Daguerreotype to her. On the other hand, the Talbot-type is comparable to the unsightly seed of some beautiful and useful plant, which is to grow and multiply and spread over the whole earth.

Talbot's sensitive substance was silver chloride on paper. He first fixed the pictures by soaking them in a solution of potassium iodide and then in one of sodium chloride. Afterwards, at the suggestion of Sir John Herschel, he used sodium thiosulphate for that purpose. It is a striking fact that it was also by accident that Talbot discovered a developing agent. It is said that, by chance, one of Talbot's unfinished pictures came in contact with some extract of nutgalls. So Talbot's pictures were from that time developed by means of the extract of nutgalls, and gallic, and, from that, pyrogallic acid has been used ever since as a developer. The defects of his pictures

were largely chargeable to the poor quality of the paper then obtainable.

His pictures were crude, but his ideas were capable of indefinite development. It is Talbot's highest honor that all modern photography is the legitimate offspring of his ideas. A transparent negative from which a positive can be taken is the essential thing in nearly all our processes. That was the invention of Talbot. True, his process amounted to little at first, but with the substitution, by Niepce de St. Victor, of glass for the imperfectly transparent paper, came a measure of success. Then followed as improvements the use of albumen, collodion, and, finally, gelatine, as vehicles for the silver salt to retain it on the plate. Albumen paper to print the pictures upon completed what was, for a long time, required. By its superior stiffness and transparency, glass supplanted paper for negatives, but modern photography has largely given up glass for films. Paper has ever remained the most used substance on which to print the finished positive.

Shall we put Talbot below Daguerre? Within the last twenty years how many Daguerreotypes have been taken? In the same time how many negatives have been made and how many pictures printed from them?

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THE ESSAYS OF SCHOPENHAUER, THE EXPOUNDER OF PESSIMISM

THE misanthropic and predominantly gloomy view of the world and of human existence taken by philosopher-pessimists like Arthur Schopenhauer can be palatable to no high-hearted sentient being, with any courage or buoyance in his nature. The pall that the pessimists throw over life, and the mood which whines about the painfulness and purposelessness of human existence, are phases of a malady which has cast a blighting breath over modern society and over many minds which might have been its joy as well as its chief adornment. The evil thing is expressive of a want of faith, since only in unbelief or in a mind, the under-pinning of which had dropped out, could so cheerless and hopeless a view of life, such as the pessimists affect, and who deem this not the best, but the worst, of all possible worlds, be rationally entertained.

Looking at the dark side of our lot is a poor and handicapping business, and the luxurious hugging of our resentments against the Author of it, with a reckless indictment of His goodness, shows an ignoble and unmanly spirit. We may read for their philosophy, and perhaps for the literary beauty of their writings, the lamentations of the German Schopenhauer and the Italian Leopardi, but we can hardly read them for inspiration, or for any pleasure in their sour views of life. Their works are the product of atrabiliousness or morbidity, certainly not of sanity, or of any appreciation of the healthfulness and joy of living. A sense of failure in life would seem to have actuated them in writing as they did, or, as a writer aptly suggests, they were "vexed with the infirmity of fear."

The socialism and discontent of the times has of late given Schopenhauer a vogue, and editions of his writings have been numerous in the past few years, their sale being helped, presumably, by the author's fine literary faculty. It is the latter, rather than the virus of pessimism, which, in reading him of late, has attracted us, and called our attention to a recent cheap reissue of Schopenhauer's minor essays.* An interesting critique on the latter, with an instructive account of the writer and his career, has just appeared in the London "Spectator," from which we make the following extract.

"'In possessing Schopenhauer the world possesses a personality the richer,' declares the writer of the introduction to these essays, and the remark is just. We do not so much care for the specific opinions held by Schopenhauer as for the fact that he arrived at opinions for himself, that his mind was original, his intellect clear, his sense of intellectual honesty profound, that he was never

* "Essays of Schopenhauer." Translated by Mrs. Rudolph Dircks. London: Walter Scott; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

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carried away by the jargon or fashions of the hour. "Best be yourself, imperial, plain, and true," says Browning, and the spirit of that idea permeates all that Schopenhauer ever wrote. The essay in this volume on "Thinking for Oneself" represents the mental attitude of the writer all through his life, and its central thought shows why Schopenhauer exercised so vigorous an influence on contemporary Europe. Honesty, courage, lucidity,—these were in his eyes the intellectual virtues, the absence of which, he thought, had inflicted such injury on German philosophy and literature. The philosophical creed of Schopenhauer, as set forth mainly in *Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung* (The World as Will and Idea), has been much discussed, and we do not intend to treat of it, since it is only indirectly concerned with the present volume, excepting as regards the essay on "Religion." Suffice it to say that Schopenhauer was consumed with hatred for the Transcendental school as represented by Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, who had, he thought, led the world astray, and he conceived of himself as having taken up the true problem of philosophy as it was left by Kant, whose legitimate successor he was. His mind, fundamentally Greek, was also strongly imbued with Oriental thought, and he was led to see the phenomenal world as the outcome of will, which was the source of the contradictions and misery of existence. From those contradictions and misery man could never be released save by the renunciation of the will to exist.

These essays are all characteristic of the man,—of his strength and his weakness, of his intellectual sincerity, and of his moral shortcomings. He loved clear thinking and decided utterance, as we see from his essays on "Authorship and Style" and on "Reading and Books." He had an absolute hatred for sentimentalism and for conventions, and he despised women, whom he regarded as the chief mainstays of these all-pervading elements in social life. He had an utter contempt for the trifles amid which the mass of people fritter away life, as we see from his essay on the "Emptiness of Existence." He detested priests and those philosophers whose conclusions maintain the institution of priesthood, as we discover in the dialogue on "Religion." He thinks the world a poor business, and the mass of its inhabitants, who lived dazzled and deluded by the shows of things, beneath contempt, fit only to be hewers of wood and drawers of water for the superior few. Indeed, Schopenhauer's sympathies are as thoroughly aristocratic as his intellect is keen. When we say this, it must be understood that we mean aristocratic in the Greek, not in the ordinary modern, sense. For the upper classes, with their conventions, their absence of ideas, their externalism and materialism, Schopenhauer not only has no sympathy, he despises them. Indeed, his lip is perpetually curled in scorn for a world which he conceives as a profound blunder, filled with stupid people, and given over to the noisy performance of things that are not worth doing. His contempt for the world, however, has not the true religious note of either Christianity or Buddhism. It is purely intellectual, without divine sympathy or pity; its renunciation is merely intellectual, without the passionate devotion to an ideal good which burns in the heart of St. Augustine or St. Francis. Beneath the almost ascetic garb we detect the cloven foot of Mephistopheles, and we know that in his actual life Schopenhauer was unable to rise above a selfish cynicism which accords ill with his almost Platonic worship at the shrine of the Idea.

The best essays in this work are those which have to do with reading, literature, and books, with nearly every word of which we are in hearty agreement, and every word of which needs saying. Much reading, says Schopenhauer, is destructive of original thought. The great writers, whose works will endure, wrote out of their own heart, they learned direct from Nature, and had an original connection with the universe. The inferior writers, who have really nothing to say, but who write for money, or to gratify vanity, or for the purpose of mere light criticism, depend on the works of other men; they merely think thoughts that have already been thought many times over. The first class of writers think about the subject itself, the second think about the books which have been already written on the subject, and so they can never be original. The former alone develop style, which is "the physiognomy of the mind." There

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is no true literature without this subtle element of style, the talk of substance without form being a delusion. "This preference for matter to form is the same as a man ignoring the shape and painting of a fine Etruscan vase in order to make a chemical examination of the clay and colors of which it is made." Style, however, is not the outcome so much of direct effort as of clear thinking, which will create its own style, so that we see in the Greeks, as in Shakespeare or Molière, clear, original ideas issuing naturally in a style of distinction, while so many German writers (Schopenhauer is very severe on most of his own countrymen), with flaccid and vague notions, are unable to give us anything lucid or definite.

On the whole, thinks Schopenhauer, writers should write generally as they speak, but "a certain trace of relationship with the monumental style" should be visible. In other words, literature should be embodied in a certain medium between the slipshod talk of the street and the stilted form of the pedant. To the reader Schopenhauer gives advice which the reviewer admits to be counsel of perfection, but to which he cannot, in the nature of things, attain. Why waste time over the last sensational novel or piece of mere bookmaking when the real treasures of the world of letters lie before you? Our philosopher is terribly severe on the literary small-talk of the drawing-room, which, it is to be feared, is worse now, and in England, than it was in the Germany of his day. "Nine-tenths of the whole of our present literature aims solely at taking a few shillings out of the public's pocket, and to accomplish this, author, publisher, and reviewer, have joined forces." We do not read great books, says Schopenhauer, but books about books, and even books about these, and we spend our time chattering about these stale rehashes while we might be fortifying the intellect with the immortal works of literature. This charge is, no doubt, true; but something is to be said for reading even the poorer books of our own time, because they do, in a measure, breathe the *Zeitgeist* or Time Spirit, and we cannot afford to cut ourselves off from the influences of our own age.

The essay on "Noise" would be admirable were it not for the spirit of utter contempt for the laboring masses, who mostly make noise, which pervades it. But every man of letters will acquiesce in the protest against purely unnecessary noises which ruin the nerves, sour the temper, and prevent much good intellectual work from being done. If Schopenhauer found so much exasperation from the noises of a comparatively small German city, what would be his feeling in the London of to-day, where quiet is a luxury to be bought and paid for at a high price? Still more characteristic of its author than the essay on "Noise" is that on "Women." Here, indeed, we arrive at Schopenhauer's inmost soul. It will be remembered that his mother, Joanna, was a singular woman, with whom he was perpetually at war. She was lively, he was grim. She was a sentimentalist, he detested sentiment. She was devoted to society, to gossip, to the *convenances* of life. He lived for ideas; and, with an almost savage moroseness, poured scorn on the round of "at homes" and æsthetic tea-parties. Both were selfish and quarrelsome. We may judge, therefore, that Schopenhauer took his notions of women partly from his mother. It goes without saying that these notions were violent in the extreme, yet not without some aspects of truth.

The "new woman" would rave at this satire on her pretensions; and yet it would do her good to read what Schopenhauer has to say with as much calmness as she can command. Woman is here depicted as emphatically "a lesser man," —indeed, so far below man as to be fit only for the rôle of the old-fashioned German *Haus-frau*.

The utterance on religion is cast in the form of a dialogue, in which one of the characters takes sides with what may be called liberal Christianity, while the other obviously represents Schopenhauer himself, whose argument is that the day for religion is over, and that we can no longer maintain figments in which we do not believe for the sake of keeping the masses quiet. A return to Paganism for the many, to a kind of esoteric Buddhism for the few, seems to be the idea which the Frankfort philosopher had in his mind. The last essay defends suicide, and is evidence both of the Pagan conception of life, and the Eastern conception of impersonal absorption, which were blended in the thought of Schopenhauer.

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GERMANY'S "IRON CHANCELLOR," PRINCE BISMARCK *

FEW men of the century have served their age with more vigor and distinction than has Germany's Iron Chancellor. If we except, perhaps, Mr. Gladstone, his one rival as a contemporary statesman of the first rank, there is no man of the time whose career arouses such enthusiasm, or in so commanding a degree arrests and transfixes public attention as the redoubtable Prince Bismarck. Time has dealt kindly with him, as it has dealt kindly also with the great English commoner; and though the Fates have relegated both to retirement, and by compulsion withdrawn them from the din and tumult of active politics, each is still a force to be reckoned with, though in the ordinary course of events, nature must, in both cases, soon claim its own. To the veteran of Friedrichsruh, lonely as must now be his lot in retirement, it cannot but be gratifying to him to find that before he passes from the scenes of more than half a century of active labors, the craft of letters, represented in the person of Dr. Bruno Garlepp, has sought, with notable success, to treasure up the annals of the ex-chancellor's life and preserve a graphic record of them for posterity.

It is this great achievement that we have here to chronicle; and the product, thanks to the enterprise of the publishers of this magazine, is the sumptuous folio volume, with its wealth of illustrations and elaborate emblematic binding, that has just issued as the most artistic and crowning literary undertaking of The Werner Company. The monumental publication appears in two separate editions — the German and the English, — and each magnificently portrays the detailed life-history as it elaborately commemorates the distinguished public career of one of the most masterful figures of the century. The work, in its original form, appears here and in the German Fatherland under the title of "Bismarck-Denkmal," and has won for its eminent author, Herr Garlepp, the highest encomiums of Berlin society, including royalty and the critics. The English translation has been undertaken by Mr. Sidney Whitman, an English writer of the highest competence, and author of several notable works on "Imperial Germany," and the "Realm of the Habsburgs." But admirable as is the literary matter of the work, the volume owes no little of its interest to the lavish and magnificent character of the illustrations, which rank the book high as a work of art, while, at the same time, adding to its value as a history and a life-memorial.

In a previous issue of SELF CULTURE,* we drew from the present volume some details of Bismarck's family history and early school life and showed what were the qualities he inherited from his ancestors, which, with his own ambition and bent towards diplomacy and statecraft, made him the man he became in Prussian affairs and the arbiter of Europe. Passing over these early characteristics and the years of his political novitiate, as a representative, in the fifties, of the Germanic Diet, and later on as Prussian minister to St. Petersburg and Paris, let us see what was the condition of affairs in Europe that brought the great statesman to the forefront in the political activities of the Old World.

It was the re-opening, in 1863, of the Schleswig-Holstein question, with the protest of the German "Bund" against Danish aggression in the Elbe duchies, that gave Bismarck his first opportunity to realize his far-seeing schemes for the aggrandizement of Prussia. Frederick William IV. had only recently died and his brother, William I. had succeeded to the Prussian throne, with Bismarck as his chief minister. Bismarck wanted Holstein, with its port of Kiel and seaboard harbor, in which to float a future Prussian navy. But the Danes, though not then in possession of the Duchies, still sought to attach them to the Danish

* "Germany's Iron Chancellor," by Bruno Garlepp. Translated from the original German and edited by Sidney Whitman, F.R.G.S., author of "Imperial Germany," "The Realm of the Habsburgs," etc., 403 pages, folio (elaborately illustrated). THE WERNER COMPANY, Akron, O., New York, Chicago, Berlin, London, and Paris, 1897.

* May, 1897, page 130, Vol. V.

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crown, and, when Frederick VII. of Denmark died, a crisis was precipitated by the new King's styling himself Duke of Sleswick and seeking to proclaim a constitution for the province. Meanwhile, Frederick of Augustenburg came forward as a claimant, and to set both him and Denmark aside (though the independence of the duchies was guaranteed by the Treaty of London), Austria and Prussia stepped in, and, in the short but decisive campaign of 1864, wrested both Holstein and Schleswig from the Danes.

But this, as we know, did not settle the matter, for, after making division of the duchies, Austria and Prussia quarrelled over the spoils, and after a year or more of diplomatic wrangling came to blows, Italy, at the instance of Prussia, joining in the fray. The two rival armies met between Sadowa and Königgratz (July 3, 1866), and though both were well-matched as to numbers, the new Prussian "needle-gun," aided by the military genius of Moltke and Von Roon, scored a triumph, and Austria was humiliated by a disastrous defeat. A short campaign sufficed to reduce to submission the minor states of Germany that had thrown in their lot with Austria, and peace saw them incorporated with Prussia in a new confederacy, known for a time as the North German Confederation. Austria, besides being mulcted in twenty million thalers as a war indemnity to Prussia, had to acquiesce in Prussia's incorporation of Schleswig-Holstein and in her own exclusion from the newly-formed German Confederation. Prussia, on the other hand, in addition to her other gains as the result of the "Seven Weeks' War," at once took the leadership of Germany, and under Bismarck's astute statemanship began to consolidate and strengthen herself and seek to bring the states of Southern Germany into a united nation.

In 1870, German hegemony was hastened by the outbreak of the long threatened war between France and Prussia over the succession to the Spanish throne. The provisional government of Spain had elected a Hohenzollern relative of William I. of Prussia, and though, by the advice of William, Prince Leopold had withdrawn his candidature, French susceptibilities were wounded, and, as France had previously taken umbrage at Prussia's occupancy of Luxemburg, Napoleon III. precipitated the conflict which ended so disastrously for himself and the French nation in the surrender at Metz and Sedan. The Southern German States having taken part with Prussia in the discomfiture of France, fusion of interests naturally followed and hastened the movement for the re-establishment of the German Empire. It was at Versailles, in January, 1871, when the Prussian armies were investing Paris and the German flag was about to be hoisted over the forts of the French capital, that William I. was proclaimed hereditary Emperor of Germany and he formally assumed the imperial dignity. At the same time Bismarck was appointed Imperial Chancellor and set himself the magnificent task of consolidating and unifying the new federation. A constitution was drafted and proclaimed, while the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, that had been wrested from France, were organized as an imperial German province.

The autonomists for a while, however, did not have it all their own way, for the Prussian Falk Laws had alienated the Roman Catholic section of the community, and Socialism began to make irreconcilables. An aggressive colonial policy and economic changes, in the direction of increased protection, with provision for creating a navy and extending the effective force of the army, created friction in Parliament and added to the difficulties of government. But the dominant will-power and ability of Bismarck, together with national gratitude towards him as the practical founder of the new empire, smoothed the "Iron Chancellor's" path and paved the way for his personal ascendency and many years of triumph.

Prussia now not only rose to dominance among the Germanic kingdoms, with Count Bismarck as the acknowledged empire-builder, but Berlin henceforth, so long at least as "the man of blood and iron" held the reins of power, became the capital of political Europe. This, historically, has been repeatedly manifested when matters of European concern, such as the Eastern Question, brought the diplomats of the Great Powers to Berlin, or when the Powers themselves shaped their policies or governed their diplomatic movements in line with Bismarck's practical dictatorship. Before his defiant spirit, parties within the

new Empire which his genius had created, though they feared Bismarck, succumbed to him, and even when they hated him could not but see in him a colossal embodiment, of which they were proud, of "the German spirit and the German sword." His inflexible will and moods of aggressive independence created for him numberless foes and led Carlyle to speak of him as "perhaps the nearest approach to a Cromwell that is possible in these poor times;" but the nation soon came to bow to his absolutist spirit and to pay homage to his unfaltering loyalty to the nationalistic ideal by which he was inspired. It was this latter virtue in Bismarck, coupled with his sagacity and soldier-like directness of aim and purpose, that gave him his position of towering greatness, and enabled him to govern with almost autocratic power, to the discomfiture of his enemies, of whom he had many in the nation. And yet, though his outer bearing was often rough and dictatorial, Bismarck is possessed of many kindly, human traits, as Herr Garlepp has shown us, and as not a few of the illustrations in his work touchingly exemplify. His personality is so strongly marked, and the habit of command so ingrained in him, that the gentler emotions and homelike graces do not often find chance of expression. They are nevertheless there, and in his domestic life and in moments of quietude in the social circle, or when in contact with the *camaraderie* of his student and army days, they are permitted free and ready play. There is an admirable pen-portrait of him, given in the present volume, which clearly sets before us the manner of the man, with an unbiased estimate of his ability. It is quoted from Jules Favre, the French statesman, and is a study of Bismarck during the negotiations for peace after the Franco-Prussian War.

"His great stature, powerful head, and deep-cut features gave him an aspect, which, though commanding and severe, is yet softened by a natural simplicity which sometimes verges on naïveté. His manner was polite and serious, quite free from either affectation or roughness. As soon as the conversation started, he assumed an air of benevolent *bonhomie*, which he retained to the end. I was astonished at the clearness of his thoughts, the acuteness of his intelligence, and the originality of his mind; nor was his perfectly unassuming bearing less remarkable. He appeared to me to be far superior as a political man-of-business to any one I can think of; he calculated only on definite facts; he considered only practical solutions; and was indifferent to everything that did not lead to some useful end. The great control which he exerts over himself engenders neither arrogance nor self-conceit; but he wields that control with a firm hand, and does not make the least effort to conceal the sacrifices he makes not to lose it.

The many and striking portraits of this idol of the German people, which enrich Dr. Garlepp's work, are of the highest interest to the student of politics, and reveal the great Prussian minister of state in many now historic phases of his dominant career. We allude not only to the copies of large canvases, faithfully reproduced in colors, but to the attitudes and poses in which the artist has depicted him — in the council chamber, at reviews, in diplomatic and military audiences, when negotiating terms with an enemy, and in the pageantry of parades and receptions, at the capital or at his peaceful home in the Saxon forest. The wealth of the illustrative material which embellishes the book is, as we have said, its most attractive feature, and is, of itself, an enduring monument, as well as a fascinating portrait-cabinet to those who have not seen the great Chancellor, of a remarkable man. The affection with which the national hero, in his old age, is now universally regarded, is a testimony to the honesty, commanding ability, and useful purpose of a long and loyal life. He has triumphed over enemies and lived down calumny and detraction, and even survived the graceless and inconsiderate slightings of a young, hotspur master. His own high and chivalrous spirit, and sense of duty well done to both king and country, can well fortify him in the calm evening of his life, and enable him to be indifferent alike to royal caprice or popular clamor. History will take care to do him justice, and, as the years pass, his reputation will enhance, and his memory when he has gone hence, will not fail in securing his countrymen's affection and reverence, with a world-wide homage.

The reader who may be further interested in the subject of Dr. Garlepp's work, is commended to turn to a critique upon it, contributed by the kind courtesy of Prof. C. F. Kolbe, of Buchtel College, Akron, O., to the book review department in the present number.

G. MERCER ADAM.

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JUDEA, ROME, GREECE, AND ASIA AS SOURCES OF CULTURE*

THE idea of monotheism and the principle of purity might seem hardly enough to be the chief results of so systematic a discipline as that of the Hebrews. But, in reality, they are the cardinal points in education. The idea of monotheism (the doctrine that there is but one God) outtops all other ideas in dignity and worth. The spirituality of God involves in it the supremacy of conscience, the immortality of the soul, the final judgment of the human race. For we know the other world, and can only know it, by analogy drawn from our own experience. With what, then, shall we compare God? With the spiritual or the fleshly part of our nature? On the answer depends the whole bent of our religion and of our morality. . . .

The people whose extraordinary toughness of nature has enabled it to outlive Egyptian Pharaohs, and Assyrian kings, and Roman Cæsars, and Mussulman caliphs, was well matched against a power of evil, which, undermining domestic virtue, has battled with the human spirit ever since the creation, and has inflicted and may yet inflict, more deadly blows than any other power we know of. Such was the training of the Hebrews.

To the chief elements of civilization Rome contributed her admirable spirit of order and organization. To her had been given the genius of government. She had been trained to it by centuries of difficult and tumultuous history. Storms which would have rent asunder the framework of any other polity only practiced her in the art of controlling popular passions; and when she began to aim consciously at the Empire of the world, she had already learned her lesson. She had learned it as the Hebrews had learned theirs, by an enforced obedience to her own system. In no nation of antiquity had civil officers the same unquestioned authority during their term of office, or laws or judicial rules the same reverence. That which religion was to the Jew, including even the formalism which encrusted and fettered it, law was to the Roman. . . . Justinian's laws have penetrated into all modern legislation, and almost all improvements bring us nearer to his code.

Much of the spirit of modern politics came from Greece; much from the woods of Germany. But the skeleton and framework is almost entirely Roman. And it is not this framework only that comes from Rome. The moral sentiments and the moral force which lie at the back of all political life, and are absolutely indispensable to its vigor, are, in great measure, Roman, too. It is true that the life and power of all morality whatever will always be drawn from the New Testament; yet it is in the history of Rome rather than in the Bible that we find our models and precepts of political duty, and especially of the duty of patriotism. St. Paul bids us follow whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report. But, except through such general appeals to natural feeling, it would be difficult to prove from the New Testament that cowardice was not only disgraceful but sinful, and that love of our country was an exalted duty of humanity. That lesson our consciences have learnt from the teaching of ancient Rome.

To Greece was entrusted the cultivation of the reason and the taste. Her gift to mankind has been science and art. There was little in her temper of the spirit of reverence. Her morality and her religion did not spring from the conscience. Her gods were the creatures of imagination, not of spiritual need. Her highest idea was not holiness, as with the Hebrews, nor law, as with the Romans, but beauty. Even Aristotle, who assuredly gave way to mere sentiment as little as any Greek that ever lived, placed the Beautiful at the head of his moral system, not the Right nor the Holy. Greece, in fact, was not looking at another world, nor even striving to organize the present, but rather aiming at the development of free nature. The highest possible cultivation of the individual, the most finished perfection of the natural

* An excerpt from the article on "The Education of the World," contributed to the now famous "Essays and Reviews," by the present Archbishop of Canterbury, when its writer (Rev. Dr. Temple) was headmaster of Rugby School. —ED. S.C.

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faculties, was her dream. It is true that the philosophers are ever talking of subordinating the individual to the state. But in reality there never has been a period in history nor a country in the world, in which the peculiarities of individual temper and character had freer play. This is not the best atmosphere for political action; but it is better than any other for giving vigor and life to the impulses of genius, and for cultivating those faculties, the reason and taste, in which the highest genius can be shown.

To the Greeks we owe the logic which has ruled the minds of all thinkers since Aristotle. All our natural and physical sciences really begin with the Greeks, and, indeed, would have been impossible had not Greece taught men how to reason. To the Greeks we owe the corrective which conscience needs to borrow from nature. Conscience, startled at the awful truths which she has to reveal, too often threatens to withdraw the soul into gloomy and perverse asceticism; then is needed the beauty which Greece taught us to admire, to show us another aspect of the Divine Attributes.

The discipline of Asia was the never-ending succession of conquering dynasties, following in each other's track like waves, an ever-moving yet never-advancing ocean. Cycles of change were successively passing over her, and yet at the end of every cycle she stood where she had stood before, and nearly where she stands now. The growth of Europe has dwarfed her in comparison, and she is paralyzed in presence of a gigantic strength younger but mightier than her own. But in herself she is no weaker than she ever was. The monarchs who once led Assyrian, or Babylonian, or Persian armies across half the world, impose on us by the vast extent and rapidity of their conquests; but these conquests had, in reality, no substance, no inherent strength. This perpetual baffling of all earthly progress taught Asia to seek her inspiration in rest. She learned to fix her thoughts upon another world, and was disciplined to check, by her silent protest, the over-earthly, over-practical tendency of the Western nations. She was ever the one to refuse to measure Heaven by the standard of earth. Her teeming imagination filled the church with thoughts "undreamt of in our philosophy." She had been the instrument to teach the Hebrews the doctrine of the Immortality of the Soul; for whatever may be said of the early notions on this subject, it is unquestionable that in Babylon the Jews first attained the clearness and certainty in regard to it which we find in the teaching of the Pharisees. . . . The Western nations are always tempted to make reason not only supreme, but despotic, and dislike to acknowledge mysteries even in religion. They are inclined to limit all doctrines within the confines of spiritual utility, and to refuse to listen to dim voices and whispers from within, those instincts of doubt, and reverence, and awe, which yet are, in their place and degree, messages from the depths of our being. Asia supplies the corrective by perpetually leaning to the mysterious. When left to herself, she settles down to baseless dreams, and sometimes to monstrous and revolting fictions. But her influence has never ceased to be felt, and could not be lost without serious damage.

Thus the Hebrew may be said to have disciplined the human conscience, Rome the human will, Greece the reason and taste, Asia the spiritual imagination. Other races that have since been admitted into Christendom also did their parts. And others may yet have something to contribute; for though the time of discipline is childhood, yet there is no precise line beyond which all discipline ceases. Even the gray-haired man has yet some small capacity for learning like a child; and even in the maturity of the world the early modes of teaching may yet find a place.

FREDERICK TEMPLE, D.D.

These are days of popular manuals. A new series entitled, "Masters of Medicine," has just appeared in London, under the supervision of Dr. Ernest Hart, editor of the "British Medical Journal," the purpose of which is to record the lives, the difficulties, and the triumphs of those who have done most for the advancement of medical science in modern times. The first volume of the series to appear deals with "John Hunter, Man of Science and Surgeon," and has been written by Mr. Stephen Paget, with an introduction by Sir James Paget, the eminent surgeon. John Hunter is the father of modern scientific surgery. He created pathology, or the science upon which all surgery is based, for it deals with the principles of disease. The series is intended for the general public as well as for the medical profession. The next volume will be on Harvey, the discoverer of the circulation of the blood.

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A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF FOREIGN MISSIONS

THE literature of missionary enterprise has, in Dr. James S. Dennis's "Christian Missions and Social Progress" (New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Co.), received a unique contribution of high interest and extreme value. Nowhere else have we found so thorough a marshalling of facts or so philosophic a handling of the interesting subject. The author, who was for some time attached to the Syrian outpost of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions at Beirut, comes to his work admirably equipped for the task of writing, from the standpoint of the sociologist, an account of Christian missions in foreign lands, of portraying the debased social life of heathenism, with all its degrading and corrupting rites and customs, and of setting forth, in emphatic terms, the well-attested power and influence of Christianity in its uplifting and regenerating work.

The basis of the book is a course of lectures, since greatly expanded, delivered by the author at Princeton and other theological seminaries. The lectures attracted great attention, owing to the masterly treatment of the subject, in its sociological aspects, in Dr. Dennis's hands; to the lecturer's elaborate review of the service rendered by missions in the spheres of education, literature, philanthropy, social reform, and national development; and to his instructive setting forth of the influence of the great ethnic religions of the world upon the higher life of society, and the impressive contrast presented in the power of Christianity to purify and elevate the moral life of the nations. The lectures, as originally delivered, were but the framework of what their author has, with infinite and manifest labor, now presented in a greatly developed and enriched form. A glance at the scheme of the book will suffice to show how thoroughly the author has studied his subject, how voluminous, though highly important, are his gleanings of facts from foreign fields, and how interesting and telling are the deductions drawn from his observation, research, and inquiry, in the varied missionary fields which he opens so instructively to view. So rich is his grouping of facts touching all phases of his subject, and scientific his method of classifying and emphasizing the meaning and trend of them, and of bringing out their sociological bearing, that the author may well be termed the Herbert Spencer of Missions.

The chief feature of Dr. Dennis's work is, as we have hinted, its presentation of the subject from the view-point of the sociologist. The term sociology is, we believe, newly applied in relation to missions, and it is well to understand just what is meant by it. In using it, the author simply adheres to what has become its accepted philosophic meaning, as the science of social phenomena, by which facts bearing upon social life in all its aspects are investigated, correlated and recorded. We can see Dr. Dennis's meaning by referring to the opening chapter.

The work deals not only with the results of matter gathered and facts ascertained from missionaries in the field, but with the grouping of these facts, and the enforcement of the lessons to be deduced from them, with suggestive remedies for the evils treated of. The scope of the latter will be seen from the chapter devoted to the "Social Evils of the Non-Christian World," which includes those that result not only from the vices, ignorance, and brutality of heathenism, but those that are produced from the tyranny of custom, idolatry and superstition, and from the low commercial standards, or defective industrial methods, for which even civilization is responsible in its contact with Oriental countries. The chapter which follows the latter on "Ineffectual Remedies and the Causes of Their Failure," is obviously of much practical interest, and shows that, according to the author, social regeneration is not to be looked for in education merely, or in any attempt at civilizing benighted races before the work of Christianization has been accomplished. The pictorial embellishments of the work add greatly to its interest for the lay reader and to the graphic realization of what the missions are doing in the contact of its many and zealous workers with barbarism.

G. M. A.

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SOME DISTINCTIVE CHARACTERS OF THE HUMAN STRUCTURE: AN ADDRESS* (*Concluded*)

By Sir Wm. Turner, President of the Anthropological Section of the British Science Association

THE power of assuming the erect attitude, the specialization of the upper limbs into instruments of prehension, and of the lower limbs into columns of support and progression, are not in themselves sufficient to give that distinction to the human body which we know that it possesses. They must have co-ordinated with them the controlling and directing mechanism placed in the head, known as the brain and organs of sense.

The Directing Mechanism

The head, situated at the summit of the spine, holds a commanding position. Owing to the joints for articulation with the atlas vertebra being placed on the under surface of the skull and not at the back of the head, and to the great reduction in the size of the jaws, as compared with apes and quadrupeds generally, the head is balanced at the top of the spine. The ligaments supporting it and connected with it are comparatively feeble, and do not require for their attachment strong bony ridges on the skull or massive projecting processes in the spine, such as one finds in apes and many other mammals. The head, with the atlas vertebra, can be rotated about the axis vertebra by appropriate muscles. The face looks to the front, the axis of vision is horizontal and the eyes sweep the horizon with comparatively slight muscular effort.

The cranial cavity, with its contained brain, is of absolutely greater volume in man than in any other vertebrate, except in the elephant and in the large whales, in which the huge mass of the body demands the great sensory-motor centres in the brain to be of large size. Relatively, also, to the mass and weight of the body, the brain in man may be said to be in general heavier than the brains of the lower vertebrates, though it has been stated that some small birds and mammals are exceptions to this rule.

* Continued from the December issue (page 252).

Weight of the Brain

We have abundant evidence of the weight of the brain in Europeans, in whom several thousand brains have been tested. In the men the average brain-weight is from 49 to 50 oz. (1,390 to 1,418 grm.). In the women, from 44 to 45 oz. (1,248 to 1,283 grm.). The difference in weight is, doubtless, in part correlated with differences in the mass, weight, and stature of the body in the two sexes, although it seems questionable if the entire difference is capable of this explanation. It is interesting to note that even in newborn children the boys have bigger heads and heavier brains than the girls. Dr. Boyd gives the average for the girl infants as 10 oz. and for boys 11.67 oz. A distinction in the brain-weight of the two sexes is obviously established, therefore, before the child is born, and is not to be accounted for by the training and educational advantages enjoyed by the male sex being superior to those of the female sex.

The brains of a number of men of ability and intellectual distinction have been weighed and ascertained to be from 55 to 60 oz. In a few exceptional cases, as in the brains of Cuvier and Dr. Abercrombie, the weight has been more than 60 oz., but it should also be stated that brains weighing 60 oz. and upwards have occasionally been obtained from persons who had shown no signs of intellectual eminence.

On the other hand, it has been pointed out by M. Broca and Dr. Thurman that if the brain falls below a certain weight it cannot properly discharge its functions. They place this minimum weight for civilized people at 37 oz. for the men, and 32 oz. for the women. These weights are, I think, too high for savage men, more especially in the dwarf races. We may, however, safely assume that if the brain-weight in adults does not reach 30 oz. (851 grm.), it is associated with idiocy or imbecility. There would seem, therefore, to be a minimum brain-weight, which is necessary in order that the

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mental functions may be actively discharged.

We have, unfortunately, not much evidence of the weight of the brain in the uncultivated and savage races. The weighings made by Tiedemann, Virchow, Reid, and Peacock give the mean of the brain in the negro as between 44 and 45 oz., a weight which corresponds with that of European women, whilst in the negress the mean weight is less than in the female sex in Europeans. In two Bush girls from South Africa,—representatives of a dwarf race,—the brain is said to have been 34 and 38 oz., respectively.

From the weighings which have been published of the brains of the orang and chimpanzee, it would seem that the brain-weight in these apes ranges from 11 to 15 oz. (312 to 426 grm.), and the brain-weight appears to be much about the same in the gorilla. These figures are greatly below those of the human brain, even in so degraded a people as the dwarf Bush race of South Africa. They closely approximate to the weight of newly-born male infants, in whom, as has just been stated, the average weight was 11.67 oz. For the purposes of ape life, the low brain-weight is sufficient to enable the animal to perform every function of which it is capable. Its muscular and nervous systems are so accurately co-ordinated that it can move freely from tree to tree, and swing itself to and fro; it can seize and retain objects with great precision and can search for and procure its food. In all these respects it presents a striking contrast to the infant, having an almost similar brain-weight, which lies helpless on its mother's knee.

Capacity of the Cranium

Another line of evidence of which we may avail ourselves, in order to test the relative size of the brain in the different races of men and in the large apes, is to be obtained by determining the internal capacity of the cranium. Examples of the brains of different races (except Europeans) are few in number in our collections, but the crania are often well represented, the volume of the cavity in which the brain is lodged can be obtained from them, and an approximate conception of the size and weight of the brain can be estimated. In pursuing this line of inquiry, account has, of course, to be taken of the space occupied by the membranes investing the brain, by the blood vessels and the cerebro-spinal fluid. A small deduction from the total capacity will have to be made on their behalf.

There is a general consensus of opinion amongst craniologists that the mean internal capacity of the cranium in adult male Europeans is about 1,500 c.c. (91.5 cub. in.). The mean capacity of the cranium of fifty Scotsmen that I have measured by a method which I described some years ago, was 1,493 c.c. (91.1 cub. in.). The most capacious of these skulls was 1,770 c.c. and the one with the smallest capacity was 1,240 c.c. Thus, in a highly civilized and admittedly intellectual people, the range in the volume of brain space amongst the men was as much as 530 c.c. in the specimens under examination, none of which was known or believed to be the skull of an idiot or imbecile, whilst some were known to be the crania of persons of education and position. In twenty-three Scotswomen the mean capacity was 1,325 c.c., and the range of variation was from a maximum 1,625 to a minimum 1,100 c.c.—viz., 525 c.c.

Again, I have taken the capacity by the same method of a number of crania of the Australian aborigines, a race incapable apparently of intellectual improvement beyond their present low state of development. In thirty-nine men the mean capacity was only 1,280 c.c. (78.1 cub. in.). The maximum capacity was 1,514 c.c., the minimum 1,044 c.c. The range of variation was 470 c.c. In twenty-four women the mean capacity was 1,115.6 c.c., the maximum being 1,240 and the minimum 930, and the range variation was 310 c.c. It is noticeable that in this series of sixty-three Australian skulls, all of which are in the Anatomical Museum of the University of Edinburgh, eight men had a smaller capacity than 1,200 c.c. and only four were above 1,400 c.c. Of the women's skulls ten were below 1,100 c.c., four of which were between 900 and 1,000 c.c., and only three were 1,200 c.c. and upwards.

Space does not admit of further detail on the cranial capacities of other races of men. Sufficient has been said to show the wide range which prevails, from the maximum in the Europeans to the minimum in the Australians, and that amongst persons presumably sane and capable of discharging their duties in

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their respective spheres of activity, for we must assume that the crania of the Australians, having the small capacities just referred to, were yet sufficiently large for the lodgments of brains competent to perform the functions demanded by the life of a savage. From a large number of measurements of capacity which I have made of the skulls of the principal races of men, I would draw the following conclusions:—(1) That the average cranial capacity, and, consequently, the volume and weight of the brain, are marked higher in the civilized European than in the savage races; (2) that the range of variation is greater in the former than in the latter; (3) that in uncivilized man the proportion of male crania having a capacity equal to the European mean, 1,500 c.c., is extremely small; (4) that though the capacity of the men's skulls is greater than that of the women's, there is not quite the same amount of difference between the sexes in a savage as in a civilized race.

It may now be of interest to say a few words on the capacity of the cranium in the large anthropoid apes. I have measured, by the method already referred to, the capacity of the skulls of five adult male gorillas, and obtained a mean of 404 c. c., the maximum being 590 c. c., and the minimum 410 c. c., the range of variation being 180 c. c. Dr. Delisle found the old male orang (Maurice), which died a short time ago in the Jardin des Plantes, to have a capacity of 385 c. c., whilst the younger male (Max) had a capacity of 470 c. c. The mean of eleven specimens measured by him was 408 c. c., which is somewhat less than the measurements of males recorded by M. Topinard and Dr. Vogt, but it should be stated that in some of Dr. Delisle's specimens the sex could not be properly discriminated, and possibly some of them may have been females. The cranial capacity of seven male chimpanzees is stated by M. Topinard to be 421 c. c.

The determination of the mass and weight of the brain as expressed in ounces, and of the capacity of the cranial cavity as expressed in cubic centimetres, are only rough methods of comparing brain with brain, either as between different races of men or as between men and other mammals. Much finer methods are needed in order to obtain a more exact comparison.

Quality as well as Size

The school of phrenologists represented in the first half of the century by Gall, Spurzheim, and George Combe, whilst recognizing the importance of the size of the brain as a measure of intellectual activity, also attached value to what was called its quality. At that time the inner mechanism of the brain was almost unknown, for the methods had not been discovered by which its minute structure could be determined. It is true that a difference was acknowledged between the cortical grey matter situated on the surface of the hemispheres and the subjacent white matter. Spurzheim had also succeeded in determining the presence of fibres in the white matter of the encephalon, and had, to a slight extent, traced their path. The difference between the smooth surface of the hemispheres of the lower mammals and the convoluted surface of the brain of man and the higher mammals and the influence which the development of the convolutions exercised in increasing the area of the cortical grey matter were also known.

A most important step in advance was made when, through the investigations of Leuret and Gratiolet, it became clear that the convolutions of the cerebrum, in their mode of arrangement, were not uniform in the orders of mammals which possessed convoluted brains, but that different patterns existed in the orders examined. By his further researches, Gratiolet determined that in the anthropoid apes, notwithstanding their much smaller brains, the same general plan of arrangement existed as in man, though differences occurred in many of the details, and that the key to unlock the complex arrangements in man was to be obtained by the study of the simpler disposition in the apes. These researches have enabled anatomists to localize the convolutions and the fissures which separate them from each other and to apply to them precise descriptive terms. These investigations were necessarily preliminary to the histological study of the convolutions and to experimental inquiry into their functions.

Nerve-Cells

By the employment of the refined histological methods now in use, it has been shown that the grey matter in the cortex of the hemispheres and in other parts of the

brain is the seat of enormous numbers of nerve cells, and that those in the cortex, whilst possessing a characteristic pyramidal shape, present many variations in size. Further, that these nerve-cells give origin to nerve axial fibres, through which areas in the cortex become connected directly or indirectly either with other areas in the same hemisphere, with parts of the brain and spinal cord situated below the cerebrum, with the muscular system or with the skin and other organs of sense.

Every nerve-cell with the nerve axial fibre arising from and belonging to it, is now called a neurone, and both brain and spinal cord are built up of tens of thousands of such neurones. It may reasonably be assumed that the larger the brain the more numerous are the neurones which enter into its constitution. The greater the number of the neurones, and the more complete the connections which the several areas have with each other through their axial fibres, the more complex becomes the internal mechanism and the more perfect the structure of the organ. We may reasonably assume that this perfection of structure finds its highest manifestations in the brain of civilized men.

The specialization in the relations and connections of the axial fibre processes of the neurones, at their termination in particular localities, obviously points to functional differences in the cortical and other areas to which these processes extend. It has now been experimentally demonstrated that the cortex of the cerebrum is not, as M. Flourens conceived, of the same physiological value throughout, but that particular functions are localized in different areas and convolutions. In speaking of localization of function in the cerebrum, one must not be understood as adopting the theory of Gall, that the mental faculties were definite in their number, that each had its seat in a particular region of the cortex, and that the locus of this region was marked on the surface of the skull and head by a more or less prominent "bump."

The foundation of a scientific basis for localization dates from 1870, when Fritsch and Hitzig announced that definite movements followed the application of electrical stimulation to different areas of the cortex in dogs. The indication thus given was at once seized upon by David Ferrier, who explored not only the hemispheres of dogs, but those of monkeys and other vertebrates. By his researches, and those of many subsequent inquirers, of whom amongst our countrymen we may specially name Beevor, Horsley, and Schafer, it has now been established that, when the convolutions bounding and in close proximity to the fissure of Rolando are stimulated, motor reactions in the limbs, trunk, head, and face follow, which have a definite purposive character, corresponding with the volitional movements of the animal. The Rolandic region is therefore regarded as a part of the motor apparatus; it is called the motor area, and the function of exciting voluntary movements is localized in its cortical grey matter.

Basis for Localisation

By the researches of the same and other inquirers, it has been determined that certain other convolutions are related to the different forms of sensibility, and are sensory or perceptive centres, localized for sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch.

Most important observations on the paths of conduction of sensory impressions in the cortex of the convolutions were announced last year by Dr. Flechsig of Leipsic, so well known by his researches on the development of the tracts of nerve-fibres in the columns of the spinal cord, published several years ago. He discovered that the nerve-fibres in the cord did not become myelinated, *i. e.*, attain their perfect structure, at a uniform period of time, so that some acquired their complete functional importance before others. He has now applied the same method of research to the study of the development of the human brain, and has shown that in it also there is a difference in the time of attaining perfect structural development of the nerve-tracts. Further, he has discovered that the nerve-fibres in the cerebrum become myelinated, subsequent to the fibres of the other divisions of the cerebro-spinal nervous axis. When a child is born very few of the fibres of its cerebrum are myelinated, and we have now an anatomical explanation of the reason why an infant has so inactive a brain and is so helpless a creature. It will, therefore, be of especial interest to determine whether in those animals which are active as

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soon as they are born and which can at once assume the characteristic attitude of the species, the fibres of the cerebrum are completely developed at the time of birth. Flechsig has also shown that the sensory paths myelinate before the motor tracts; that the paths of transmission of touch and the other impulses conducted by the dorsal roots of the spinal nerves are the first to become completely formed whilst the fibres for auditory impulses are the last.

Flechsig names the great sensory centre which receives the impulses associated with touch, pain, temperature, muscular sense, etc., "horperfuhlsphare," the region of general-body sensation, or the "somaesthetic" area, as translated by Dr. Barker. The tracts conducting these impulses myelinate at successive periods after birth. They pass upwards from the inner and outer capsules and the optic thalamus as three systems.

The Rolandic area, therefore, is not exclusively a motor area, but is a centre associated also with the general sensibility of the body. The motor fibres in it are not myelinated until after the sensory paths have been developed. As the motor paths become structurally complete, they can be traced downwards as the great pyramidal tract from the pyramidal nerve-cells in this area, from which they arise into the spinal cord, where they come into close relation with the nerve-cells in the anterior horn of grey matter, from which the nerve axial fibres proceed that are distributed to the voluntary muscles.

Flechsig's observations agree with those of previous observers in placing the visual centre in the occipital lobe; the auditory centre in and near the superior temporal convolution; and the olefactory centre in the uncinate and hippocampal convolutions. Of the position of the taste centre he does not speak definitely, although he thinks it to be in proximity either to the centre of general sensation or to the olfactory centre.

Association Centres

The centres of special sense in the cortex, and the large Rolandic area, which is the centre both for motion and general sensation, do not collectively occupy so much as one-half of the superficial area of the convolutions of the cortex. In all the lobes of the brain — frontal, parietal, occipito-temporal and insula — convolutions are situated, not directly associated with the reception of sensory impressions, or as centres of motor activity, the function of which is to be otherwise accounted for. These convolutions lie intermediary to the sensory and motor centres. Flechsig has shown that in them myelination of the nerve-fibres does not take place until some weeks after birth, so that they are distinctly later in acquiring their structural perfection and functional activity. As the nerve-fibres become differentiated, they are seen to pass from the sense-centres into these intermediate convolutions, so as to connect adjacent centres and bring them into association with each other. Hence, he has called them the Association Centres, the function of which is to connect centres and convolutions otherwise disconnected.

We have now, therefore, direct anatomical evidence, based upon differences in their stages of development, that, in addition to the sensory and motor areas in the cortex of the human brain, a third division — the association centres — is to be distinguished.

If we compare the cerebrum in man and the apes, we find these convolutions which constitute the motor and sensory centres distinctly marked in both. An ape, like a man, can see, hear, taste, smell and touch; it also exhibits great muscular activity and variety of movement. It possesses, therefore, similar fundamental centres of sensation and motion which are situated in areas of the cortex, resembling in arrangement and relative position, though much smaller in size than the corresponding convolutions in the adult human brain. It is not unlikely, though the subject needs additional research, that the minute structure of these centres resembles that of man, though from the comparatively restricted area of grey matter in the ape, the neurones will necessarily be much fewer in number. In the cerebrum of a new-born infant, whilst the motor and sensory convolutions are distinct, the convolutions for the association areas, though present, are comparatively simple, and do not possess as many windings as are to be seen in the brain of a chimpanzee not more than three or four years old.

Again, if we compare the brain of the Bush woman, miscalled the Hottentot Venus, figured by Gratiolet and by Bis-

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choff, or the one studied by Mr. John Marshall, with that of the philosopher Gauss, figured by Rudolph Wagner, we also recognize the convolutions in which the motor and sensory areas are situated. In all these brains they have a comparative simplicity of form and arrangement which enables one readily to discriminate them. When we turn, however, to the association areas in the three tiers of convolutions in the frontal lobe, and in the parieto-occipital and occipito-temporal regions where the bridging or annectant convolutions are placed, we cannot fail to observe that in a highly-developed brain, like that of Gauss, the association convolutions have a complexity in arrangement and an extent of cortical surface much more marked than in the Bush woman, and to a still greater degree than in the ape. The naked eye anatomy of the brain therefore obviously points to the conclusion that these association areas are of great physiological importance.

Their Function The problem which has now to be solved is the determination of their function. Prolonged investigation into the development and comparative histology of the brain will be necessary before we can reach a sound anatomical basis on which to found satisfactory conclusions. It will especially be necessary to study the successive periods of development of the nerve-fibre tracts in the cerebrum of apes and other mammals as well as the magnitude and intimate structure of the association areas in relation to that of the motor and sensory areas in the same species.

Flechsig, however, has not hesitated to ascribe to the association centres functions of the highest order. He believes them to be parts of the cerebral cortex engaged in the manifestations of the higher intelligence, such as memory, judgment and reflection; but in the present state of our knowledge such conclusions are, of course, quite speculative.

It is not unlikely, however, that the impulses which are conveyed by the intermediate nerve-tracts, either on the one hand from the sense centres to the association centres on the other, or from the association centres to the sensory and motor centres, are neither motor nor sensory impulses, but a form of nerve energy determined by the terminal connections and contracts of the nerve fibres. It is possible that the association centres, with the intermediate connecting tracts, may serve to harmonize and control the centres for the reception of sensory impressions that we translate into consciousness with those which excite motor activity, so as to give to the brain a completeness and perfection of structural mechanism which, without them, it could not have possessed.

We know that an animal is guided by its instincts, through which it provides for its individual wants and fulfills its place in nature. In man, on the other hand, the instinctive acts are under the influence of the reason and intelligence, and it is possible that the association centres, with the intermediate association fibres which connect them with the sensory and motor centres, may be the mechanism through which man is enabled to control his animal instincts, so far as they are dependent on sensation.

The higher we ascend in the scale of humanity the more perfect does this control become, and the more do the instincts, emotions, passions, and appetites become subordinated to the self-conscious principle which regulates our judgments and beliefs. It will, therefore, now be a matter for scientific inquiry to determine, as far as the anatomical conditions will permit, the proportion which the association centres bear to the other centres both in mammals and in man, the period of development of the association fibres in comparison with that of the motor and sensory fibres in different animals, and, if possible, to obtain a comparison in these respects between the brains of savages and those of men of intelligence.

The capability of erecting the trunk; the power of extending and fixing the hip and knee joints when standing; the stability of the foot; the range and variety of movement of the joints of the upper limb; the balancing of the head on the summit of the spine; the mass and weight of the brain, and the perfection of its internal mechanism, are distinctly human characters. They are the factors concerned in adapting the body of man, under the guidance of reason, intelligence, the sense of responsibility and power of self-control, for the discharge of varied and important duties in relation to himself, his Maker, his fellows, the animal world, and the earth on which he lives.

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TWO RECENT BOOKS ON ELECTRICITY

F the many silent revolutions which electricity is effecting or is destined to effect in the immediate future, not the least, says a writer in the new publication, "Literature," is the complete transmogrification of that ugly necessity of modern industrialism, the factory. To-day most factories are a chaos of whirling belts and wheels. To-morrow, if the electricians have their way, the buildings will be light and airy in structure and light and airy inside, and noiseless, compact, and economical electric motors will have replaced wasteful engines, shafting, and belting. So far, progress in this direction has been slow, and it is to increase the rate of advance that the author of the volume[1] under review has written, in somewhat slap-dash style, his apology for the electric motor. In it he has summarized the encouraging results attained up to the present and has pointed out to the enterprising factory-owner the way in which he must go in future. In regard to the adoption of electrical working in factories, England, adds the reviewer, does not lag behind the rest of the world, and it is to be devoutly hoped that Mr. Scott's well-reasoned, well-written advocacy will, at least, have the effect of inciting the chiefs of industry to maintain the small lead we at present possess. Electric working means lower cost of production and safer and more healthy workshops.

From title-page to index this unpretentious little text-book[2] is much to be commended. The author, unlike many we know, has selected a title which tells the potential purchaser of the book its exact scope; any one requiring to learn all about the practical design and construction of alternate-current machinery is warned off. On the other hand, students wishing to clear away misconceptions engendered in the lecture-room or engineers anxious to obtain a key to the many mysteries of alternate-current working, will find exactly what they want, lucidly set forth and without any parade of unnecessary mathematics, in the small compass of Mr. Hay's pages. There are in existence several more elaborate treatises on alternate-currents, but we are strongly inclined to the belief that, in Mr. Hay's book *all* the law and the prophets of alternate-currents is to be found. Of course, if a man propose to set up as a professor, he must master more than is therein contained, and, again, if he be a mathematical Hercules, he will find in alternate-current phenomena more than enough for twelve times twelve labors. But for the simple student or plain practical man a thorough mastery of "The Principles of Alternate-Current Working" should suffice, so far as mere book-learning is concerned; at any rate, it will prove a useful prelude to the mastery of portentous tomes, such as Dr. Fleming's well-known work on "The Alternate-Current Transformer."

Hitherto, most writers on this subject would appear to have had a twofold object in view. Co-equal with their desire to make smooth the path of the student of alternate-currents has been their anxiety to air their mathematical skill. Mr. Hay, however, studiously avoids this capital error, and even the modicum of trigonometrical and vectorial mathematics, which he is compelled by the nature of his subject to make use of, is, itself, explained in his lucid and interesting introductory chapters. In the same easy style he explains the fundamental principles and puzzles of alternate-currents. The reader must be of abnormal mental density who does not rise from a perusal of these pages with his mind at rest as regards "root-mean-square values," "power factors," "form factors," "displacement currents," and such like dark and forbidding things.

Each chapter is followed by up-to-date references to the history and bibliography of the subject and by useful exercises calculated to test the knowledge acquired. Were it not for the exceeding roughness of the diagrams and the numerous misprints, for both of which defects the publisher and not the author is, no doubt, to blame, we should have nothing but good to speak of "The Principles of Alternate-Current Working."

(1) The Local Distribution of Electric Power in Workshops. By Ernest Kilburn Scott, A. I. E. E. 137 pages. London, 1897. (Biggs. 2/-)

(2) The Principles of Alternate-Current Working. By Alfred Hay, B. Sc., Edin., Lecturer on Electrotechnics at the University College, Liverpool. 276 pages. London, 1897. (Biggs. 5/-)

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

With Departments Devoted to the Interests of The Home University League.

Every person has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—GIBBON.

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G. MERCER ADAM, EDITOR
HOWARD P. RUGGLES, BUSINESS MANAGER

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

The Presidential Message, which has been given to Congress and the country at a time, we regret to say, of personal bereavement in the home of the head of the nation, is marked by sincerity, simplicity, and no little practical wisdom. Its chief characteristic is its quiet conservatism, and the discreet avoidance of any strained rhetoric or expression of startling and disquieting judgments. With regard to some questions — international arbitration, for instance — though the President has set his face in the right direction, he has not gone very far; while with regard to other matters — bimetallism, to wit — his desire to be courteous has evidently restrained him from speaking his own mind or from giving expression to what we conceive to be sound conviction. To the topic of national finance, as our readers will have seen, the Message addresses itself at some length, and, generally speaking, the views expressed are unimpeachable. Hardly admitting of two opinions is the expediency of protecting the gold reserves. The suggestions, however, with regard to currency reform have this drawback, that they are only to be acted upon, if at all, when the revenue is on a par with the national expenditure. When we shall see that halcyon era under the present Dingley tariff — a measure which all free-traders at least know has practically been framed for the restriction and even for the exclusion of imports — we shall not hazard even a conjecture. Nor can the prospect be near, under any high protective tariff, which conserves the interests of trusts and particular trades, rather than those of the community as a whole, and so reduces the revenue from imports and continues to embarrass the finances of the nation. Already, supplementary revenue legislation would seem to be a necessity of the situation, if the finances are not to become wholly demoralized, and unless retrenchment in expenditure — the President speaks only of economy — is rigorously applied. The shortage in the revenue, under the Dingley régime, amounted, for the month of November, to over eight million dollars, and that in spite of a revived and expanding trade. The deficit of the Treasury for the first five months of the fiscal year, ending November 30th, was forty-six millions! The statement of this fact surely carries its own commentary on the impolicy of a high tariff.

Passing to the other important questions dealt with in the Message, it is an unalloyed pleasure to endorse one of them. The change in Spain's policy towards Cuba, consequent upon Sagasta's accession to power, with the recall of the obnoxious Weyler, the President thinks, should have time allowed it to show what it will produce. Intervention, and even recognition of belligerency, is for the present shelved, and with it, of course, all idea of annexation. This is the course of wisdom, and its good effect is at once seen in the improved relations of this country with Spain; while if an adequate measure of self-government is granted to the Island, with guarantees for the faithful administration of its affairs in the future, Cuba cannot but be satisfied with our non-interference. In saying this, we are not advocating deference to Spain, or forgetting what is due, by us as a people, to the cause of humanity and progress. The President shows us that he is himself sensitive on this latter point, for, while he properly states that "there is no desire on the part of our people to profit by the misfortunes of Spain," and urges that forcible annexation would be "criminal aggression," he at the same time declares that, should the exigency yet arise for the interference of this country, the step, if consonant with indisputable right and duty, will unhesitatingly be taken. "If," he says, "it shall hereafter appear to be a duty imposed by our obligations to ourselves, to civilization and humanity, to

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intervene with force, it shall be without fault on our part, and only because the necessity for such action will be so clear as to command the support and approval of the civilized world."

In the matter of Hawaii, though the circumstances are by no means alike, we could have wished that the President had shown the same wise restraint and judgment in dealing advisably with this vexed question. Nothing he has said in the Message convinces us of the policy of annexing to our already enormous continental area outlying transmarine possessions in the tropics. Nor, in our opinion, is there point in what he says, that incorporation with this Republic "is due a people which, after nearly five years of demonstrated capacity to fulfill the obligations of self-governing statehood, come of their free will to merge destinies in our body politic." With all respect to the President, we cannot convince ourselves that this is a fair way of putting the matter. "Every consideration of dignity and honor," he affirms, "requires that the treaty of annexation be ratified," and with whom — the major portion (109,000) of the population of Hawaii; or the mere handful (less than 3,500) of our countrymen in the Island, who constitute or uphold the present Hawaiian government? To this small and interested, though probably influential, class, it is not easy to see what "consideration of dignity and honor" on the part of the United States calls for the extension to them of self-rule, in the face of what it must cost to admit and maintain them in the status of statehood, and in defiance of other considerations of expediency and risk, to say nothing of native protests against annexation. We may admit the advantages of the strategical position of the Islands and the increased prestige which our Jingoes profess we should gain as a nation in annexing Hawaii. But are they an adequate set-off to the expense of maintaining a fleet in the Pacific to protect the possession, to the worries we should bring upon ourselves by incorporating and assimilating a heterogeneous mass of alien peoples, and to the violence we should do the Constitution and polity of our nation by creating a precedent of more than doubtful benefit or expediency for annexation? In Presidential Messages it would seem expedient to throw a sop to the Jingoes.

GERMANY'S SEIZURE OF KIAO-CHOW

The dominant-willed Emperor William is determined that Germany shall add largely to her navy and become a first-class sea-power. We do not say that this accounts for the Kaiser's peremptory demand for redress and an apology from Hayti, in the Lueders matter, or for the swift descent of German gunboats on the coast of China as a means of bringing the moribund "Middle Kingdom" to book for the murder of German missionaries. Nevertheless, both events play opportunely into his hands in urging the Reichstag to vote the necessary sums to increase the strength of the German navy. The seizure of Kiao-Chow, with its fort and magnificent harbor, and about 400 square miles of territory adjacent to it, must have opened wide the almond-shaped eyes of Chinese officials, since there was no waste of words preliminary to the seizure, or any time given the Chinese Government to play their halting diplomatic game, through exalted mandarins encumbered with the red tape of Peking. In these days of diplomatic flabbiness and shilly-shally temporizings, it is refreshing to see one nation, that has right on its side, take action against another that has murdered its subjects, and defied or trifled with its power. It must be a more effective lesson when the action has been taken with courage and prompt decisiveness. Austria, though she is at present politically in a weltering sea of race-upheaval, presented, the other day, another example of administrative decision, in sending two of her warships to the Bosphorus, with a threat of instant bombardment unless a heavy fine and apology were at once paid by Turkey, in atonement for injury to her subjects and insult to herself. These several decisive actions were obviously needed as a warning to nations usually indifferent to the sanctity of human life, and who presume even on their weakness and isolation to do things not tolerated in either the social or the international code.

That Germany has an ulterior object in carving out for herself in China a big slice of territory, with the advantages of strategic position and the practical command of the Yellow Sea, is manifestly her own business. It is doubtful, however, if she would have taken the bold step without an understanding with Russia,

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which Power is likely, in the coming scramble for slices of the crumbling Chinese Empire, to annex Manchuria, and so possess a permanent right of way for the transcontinental railroad from St. Petersburg to Vladivostok. Japan, France, and even Great Britain, will doubtless look with envious eyes on the action of the Kaiser, particularly if German occupation of the port and province of Shangtung is to be other than temporary. The descent upon Kiao-Chow, whatever German designs may be, can only precipitate — we fear not avert — international ferment in Chinese waters. The Kaiser's ambition had better therefore be wary, for when the prey is ready to be fallen upon, there will be many wolves to pounce upon Chinese fleece. Nor can he be sure, in committing himself to even incipient national aggression, that some, at least, of the troubles he may encounter will not arise in the Fatherland itself, among those who mistrust the advantages, in explosive times like these, of further extensions of the German navy.

An increase of the German fleet in Chinese waters, under command of Prince Henry of Prussia, the Kaiser's brother, gives an air of gravity to the German descent upon China, coupled, as it has been, with a notification of the action taken to the various governments. This would look like permanent occupation, especially when we consider the extension of German trade in the far East, which has recently been increasing by leaps and bounds. The fleet, therefore, would seem a necessity of the commercial as well as imperial needs of the nation; but, whether this be so or not, the matter is one for Germany alone to say.

* * *

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN WAR OF RACES

The alternative issue of the political conflicts in the Austro-Hungarian Reichsrath, which we foreshadowed last month, has almost sooner than we expected been realized. Francis Joseph, the veteran Emperor, has, by imperial fiat, closed the Legislature, and brought meantime to an end the worse than Donnybrook scenes that for weeks had mocked and disgraced parliamentary government in the dual monarchy. It was hardly to Austria that one would naturally have looked for a modern Cromwell, but the outbreaks in the Vienna legislature were too hideous to be silently borne by any self-respecting nation, and the Emperor, we knew, had the stuff in him, when kingly forbearance ceased to be a virtue, to fall back on an autocratic act in thrusting the rowdy legislators into the street and summarily closing the Chamber. The *coup d' état* that dissolved the legislature will no doubt have its deterrent effect throughout the Empire, aided by awing demonstrations of the troops, which are known to be loyal to the head of the monarchy. In Prague, the Bohemian capital, they had the other day to be called into requisition to quell a murderous outbreak of the Czechs against the Germans, between whom there is a racial cleavage and commercial rivalry of the bitterest kind, not likely to be soon bridged over now that the Czech language has officially been given coördinate rank with German in the Bohemian local legislature.

Though the acute stage in the conflict between Teuton and Slav has for the time being passed, no one can be assured that the Empire may not yet be shaken to its foundations. Only personal esteem and affection for the old Emperor, to whom all sections of the country are loyal, saves the State from overthrow; and should anything happen to shorten his already far advanced years, Austria would be confronted with a crisis of the gravest character. Even now, unless sectional contention and race-hatred cool down, revolution may overtake the dual Empire and the whole fabric will disappear in a seething and widespread tumult. From the complex character of the people and their inveterate jealousy of each other, nothing hopeful can be predicted in the way of maintaining the slight bond that at present unites them; and were that severed, and the factions to separate into three principalities, disintegration of all would probably ensue, with a sequel in each case fatal to independent existence.

Meanwhile, as the result of the scandalous scenes in the Reichsrath and the insurrectionary state of the Empire, the Badeni ministry has been replaced by a government presided over by the German Baron von Gautsch. How the *Ausgleich*, or working arrangement with Hungary, which is about to expire, is to be renewed, constitutionally, without Parliamentary

ratification, is a nice political question, though the knot may autocratically be cut by Imperial decree. Whether this would be valid is a matter for the constitution-mongers to decide. A more serious question is, what is to be the issue of the race rivalries in the Empire, and particularly of the struggle for dominance between the German and the Czech? The matter is complicated in this battlefield of nationalities by the recent estrangement of the Magyars from their natural allies the Germans, neither of whom is willing to brook the numerical predominance of the Slavs, and rather than be coerced by them, might exchange Habsburg rule for Hohenzollern. The loyalty as well as the caste of the army may, however, help Francis Joseph when every other resource fails.

* * *

BRITISH HILL-FIGHTING IN INDIA

Since we last dealt with the serious outbreak in India, a halt has been called in the frontier war, owing to the difficulty of conducting a winter campaign in the high elevations of the hill country. The British punitive expedition, though it has inflicted terrible punishment upon the clansmen, and forced some of the tribes to yield submission and pay a good round indemnity, has itself suffered grievous losses, besides drawing heavily on the Indian exchequer, already much depleted by large expenditures on account of the famine. Recent reports from the Indian frontier tell of dire happenings to the disaffected tribes — happenings that harrow humane feeling and bring keenly home to the mind the desolating effects and tragic horrors of war. Hundreds of villages have been given to the flames and the clansmen and their families rendered homeless for the coming winter, while in many of the mountain hamlets the grain and other stores for the sustenance of man and beast have been destroyed. Owing to the nature of the country, the tribes could rarely be got at in the open, and they have had, almost invariably, the advantage of commanding positions, from which they could be dislodged only by shelling the heights. Often this however failed, when the cliffs would have to be stormed, at fearful disadvantage to the dislodging force, and with calamitous loss of life. In this work of dislodgment, the native Indian regulars, accustomed as they have often been to military operations in the Afghan defiles and fastnesses, were, next to the mountain batteries, the main reliance; though they were always pluckily supported by the Queen's home troops and bravely led by Anglo-Indian officers. In these height-attacking operations, the Sikhs and Gurkhas, the flower of Britain's East Indian army, have behaved splendidly through all the trying campaign; while many of the European regiments — notably the Derbyshire, Northampton, and Dorsetshire battalions, the King's Own Scottish Borderers, and the Gordon Highlanders — have nobly distinguished themselves. Some of the operations were magnificent, especially the attack upon the Dargai Ridge, the defence of Gulistan and Saragarhi, the forcing of the Sempagha and the Arhanga passes, and the gallant bayonet charges against the fierce tribesmen in Tirah.

The British loss in these operations has been very heavy, especially in the storming of the heights at Dargai, in which the Gordon Highlanders, when the Sikhs and Gurkhas and parts of two English regiments had failed to cross the zone of fire, won fame by the valor and stubbornness of their charge. It was in this affair that the incident occurred, the fame of which has already run round the world and shed glory upon Findlater, the piper of the 75th Foot, or first battalion of the Gordon Highlanders. When General Lockhart had directed the colonel of the latter to take the contested position on the Dargai Ridge at all costs, the men received the mandate with a cheer, though thrice the attempt had failed, in consequence of the enemy's hotly sustained fire. In obedience to the command, "the Gordons" at once essayed to take the position, Findlater, the piper, who blew his loudest and best, animating his comrades by the martial music of the Scottish pipes. In crossing the deadly strip of ground, commanded at every point by the Afridi tribesmen, Findlater, it appears, was laid low, shot through both legs. The hero nevertheless managed, it is related, to prop himself up against a boulder and continued with unabated energy to play "The Cock o' the North," and so contributed to the success of the daring feat. The crest of the hill was finally reached by the Highlanders and triumphantly taken

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at the point of the bayonet. The piper had the honor to be mentioned in the commanding officer's despatches, and has, we learn, been recommended for the Victoria Cross.

The incident, of which the Gordon Highlanders may well be proud, adds to the traditional triumphs of the regiment, which has seen service in almost all the great campaigns of England, and bears on its colors the legends: Corunna, Waterloo, Delhi, Kandahar, and Tel-el Kebir! But while honors have fallen thick on not a few regiments, and on many heroes in the present expedition, the cost in blood and treasure to England and the Indian administration has been lamentable. The campaign, as we have said, has been suspended for the winter and the troops are recalled to Peshawur. Though great things have been accomplished, there is much and serious work yet to be done, and England may well ponder the question whether it is politic to renew the war with the tribes, or to patch up peace with them, and abandon her "forward policy" on the Northern confines of her Indian Empire.

* * *

AN ILLUSTRATED EDITION OF PARKMAN'S HISTORIES

A year ago we made the announcement in the pages of this magazine of a projected definitive edition, with illustrations, of the brilliant series of historical narratives from the pen of the late Francis Parkman. The first two volumes of the series, to be known as "the Champlain edition," with an introductory essay by Prof. John Fiske, of Cambridge, Mass., have just reached us from the author's publishers (Little, Brown & Co., of Boston). No American historian, it need hardly be said, is more worthy of the honor of an *edition de luxe*, if we regard both the transcendent interest of the historical theme with which he deals, and the accuracy, breadth of treatment, and fascination of the narratives. We say historical theme, and not themes, for the author's dozen or more volumes are but mosaics in a magnificent frieze, graphically presenting the story of the long struggle between France and England for mastery in North America, with a connected account of the earlier annals in Acadia and New France, which tell of the coming of the "Pioneers of France in the New World," their discoveries and other dramatic episodes in the history of the French colony, and of the associate work and tragic careers of the Jesuit missionaries.

The author's industry, for well-nigh fifty years, in preparing himself for his great work, we know, was untiring, and untiring also was his search for material in French archives on both sides of the Atlantic, as well as among the collections gathered in the State and Historical Society libraries of the New England Colonies, and in the ecclesiastical depositories at Paris, Montreal, and Quebec.

Immense was the labor in unearthing and valuing the material in these various sources, and phenomenal Mr. Parkman's power of digesting and arranging it for presentation in his picturesque pages. In the admirable introduction to the present volumes, Prof. Fiske shows us at what sacrifice, yet with great enthusiastic purpose, the author ventured to make his intimate acquaintance with and minute study of Indian life, to fit himself for writing those chapters, always of entrancing interest, in the mighty drama of the French and Indian War, which form the dark, yet often lurid, background of the story. Nor does Prof. Fiske, in his portrait-study of the author, omit to note Mr. Parkman's other qualifications for his great task—the sympathetic interest in and vast knowledge of his subject, the wealth of practical philosophy with which he enriches it, and the high literary and artistic qualities by which he fascinates as well as instructs the reader.

The volumes of the present edition to hand are those on

"The Pioneers of France in the New World," which originally appeared in 1865. These were followed, in 1867, by "The Jesuits in North America," and in 1869 by "La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West." "The Old Régime in Canada" was published in 1874. "Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.," in 1877, and, leaping over, for the time being, the intervening history embraced in the two volumes entitled "A Half-Century of Conflict" (1892), there appeared "Montcalm and Wolfe" (2 vols., 1884), which, with "The Conspiracy of Pontiac," and "The Oregon Trail," conclude the series.

The form and dress of this new edition of Parkman, and the added interest given by the excellent portraits and illustrations, should commend it to all book-lovers, no less than to students of history and the general reader.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Tuesday, November 9.— During the past fiscal year thirty-four railroads, it is said, have passed into the hands of the courts... Rear Admiral Rhind, U. S. Navy, and Ex-Senator Nathan Fellows Dixon are dead ...The report that a native officer and thirty-five Sikhs belonging to the Kurram column had been intercepted by tribesmen in a ravine and killed is officially confirmed... The Prince of Wales's birthday was celebrated in England.

Wednesday, November 10.— President McKinley received Sir Wilfrid Laurier, premier of Canada; Secretary Sherman introduced Sir Wilfrid, who was accompanied by Sir Julian Pauncefote, British Ambassador; Sir Louis Davies, and Professor Thompson, the British seal expert....Peru seeks a reciprocity arrangement with the United States under the Dingley tariff act ...The Turkish ambassador at Berlin, who left his post without leave because his salary had been unpaid for nine months and he was harassed by creditors, was dismissed by the Sultan on arriving at Constantinople. The sitting of the Austrian Reichsrath was again suspended.

Thursday, November 11.— At the meeting of the British, American, and Canadian seal experts statistics were presented showing that the seal catch had been greatly reduced in the past year....The president has appointed Charles Page Bryan, of Illinois, minister to China to succeed Mr. Denby....A memorial with 64,572 signatures attached, in favor of an Anglo-American arbitration treaty, has been presented to Lord Salisbury by the arbitration alliance.... The decree granting autonomy to Cuba will be gazetted on November 23....There are 33,000 Spanish soldiers in the hospitals in Cuba.

Friday, November 12.— Canada, in return for the concessions which it may make in regard to the seal question, is expected to ask for more rigid protection of its northern fisheries from American fishermen....Arrangements have been made for conferences looking to the negotiation of a reciprocity treaty between the United States and Canada....A conference of engineers and explorers has been called at St. Petersburg to discuss the feasibility of constructing an ice-breaking steamer to penetrate the Arctic seas....The proposal to impeach the Austrian ministers was rejected in the lower house of the Reichsrath; the lefts retired from the chamber.

Saturday, November 13.— The Pennsylvania monuments on the battlefield of Chickamauga were dedicated....Resistance of British claims in Africa has aroused the spirit of jingoism in France....Cecil Rhodes, ex-premier of South Africa, is seeking to defeat President Krüger for reëlection in the Transvaal....German warships were ordered to the scene of the recent outrages on missionaries in China.

Sunday, November 14.— Postmaster-General Gary in his annual report, just issued, recommends the establishment of postal savings depositaries... Governor-General Blanco has modified the edict regarding the reconcentrados in Cuba, owing to the destitute condition of many of them....The new premier of Newfoundland will demand for that colony an equal share in any reciprocity arrangement between Canada and the United States Rich strikes have caused a rush of prospectors to the gold fields of New South Wales.

Monday, November 15.— The thirteenth annual Horse Show was opened in Madison Square garden, New York; bad weather kept down the attendance and helped to make the social side of the affair less prominent than in many former years....President Low of Columbia university has withdrawn his resignation ....The statement of the gross postal receipts for last month, compared with October, 1896, at fifty of the largest postoffices, shows a net increase of $142,667, or 4.3 per cent....The Democratic Honest Money league of America has issued an address to sound-money Democrats in favor of a continuation of the contest....The relations of Japan and Russia are strained over the latter's efforts to control the Korean customs.

Tuesday, November 16.— The seal experts made a unanimous report, and the diplomatic representatives reached an understanding by which they hope at a later date to bring about a settlement of all the questions....The suggestion for the establishment in Washington of a great national university is taking a more definite form, a number of representative American women having taken hold of the project....The Pope does not accept the Laurier-Greenway settlement of the Manitoba school question .. The Newfoundland ministry, headed by Sir William Whiteway, has resigned....In repulsing an attack of the tribesmen in the Maidan valley the British force used star shells, which illuminated the scene of the encounter sufficiently to enable the tribesmen to be seen....Prof. W. H. von Riehl, the publicist and historian, died in Munich, Bavaria, aged 75.

Wednesday, November 17.— The *Competitor* prisoners were released from prison in Havana, and will sail for New York on the steamship *Yumuri*....The Rev. Dr. George H. Houghton, rector of the Church of the Transfiguration ("the Little Church Around the Corner"), New York, died, aged 77....German troops seized three forts at Kiao-Chau, China, as a measure of retaliation for the killing of German missionaries....Emperor Francis Joseph, of Austria, in receiving the Hungarian delegation, referred to the shaping of Austria's relations with Russia on an additional guaranty of peace.

Thursday, November 18.— The committee on organization of the Citizens' Union of New York has decided to continue the organization as a permanent political force in the city; the enrolled membership of the Union is 32,661; the expenditures during the recent campaign were $33,472....In swearing in the guards recruits at Berlin the troops were warned by the emperor that they might be called upon to fight an enemy within the empire....Dispatches from Madrid announce the surrender of all the important insurgent chiefs in the Philippine Islands and the complete pacification of the colony.

Friday, November 19.— The Government is preparing its case against the Central Pacific

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railroad in anticipation of a default on January 1....Commodore Dewey, president of the naval trial board, has returned to Washington from the sea trial of the *Iowa*, which he declares is "the best ship of her class in the world"....The Tammany Hall executive committee, on Richard Croker's motion, voted to give $20,000 to Cuba and a like amount to the poor of New York....A destructive fire occurred in the Cripplegate district of London; two acres were burned over, and nearly one hundred warehouses and other buildings were destroyed; the loss is estimated at $5,000,000....Official dispatches from Peking assert that the Chinese government had taken steps to punish the murderers of the German missionaries before the German troops landed at Kiao-Chau....The Canadian cabinet agreed to the proposal of this Government for a joint commission to settle existing controversies.

Saturday, November 20.—Deep snow has fallen on the mountain passes leading from Skaguay to the Klondike gold fields....The Chicago *Inter Ocean* has passed into the hands of a syndicate headed by Charles T. Yerkes....The monetary commission has taken a recess until December 15, when it will again meet in Washington....Count Goluchowski, Austrian minister for foreign affairs, defended the concert of Europe in a speech to the Austro-Hungarian delegations....The German contingent of the Cretan army of occupation has sailed for the far east on the cruiser *Kaiserin Augusta*, to reinforce the marines occupying Kiao-Chau.

Sunday, November 21.—Rapid progress is being made in the preparations for the Transmississippi and international exposition, which is to begin June 1, 1898, at Omaha, Neb....The imperial authorities in London are believed to favor the plan for settling disputes between the United States and Canada by a joint commission....The steamer *Victoria* has returned to Tromsoe, from Spitzbergen, without having obtained any information regarding Andrèe....A destructive fire occurred in Melbourne, Australia; nearly an entire block was burned, and the damage is estimated at $5,000,000.

Monday, November 22.—It is stated that in the event of Great Britain and Canada consenting to a suspension of pelagic sealing for one year, the United States will agree to a suspension of all killing of seals for one year on the Pribilof Islands, constituting the American seal possessions in Bering Sea....Gen. Lockhart has announced the English terms of submission on the part of the Afridis and given them a week in which to accept them.

Tuesday, November 23.—Secretary Lyman J. Gage delivered an address at the annual dinner of the New York Chamber of Commerce in which he urged prompt action in revising the currency system....Chairman Bynum, of the gold Democratic party, has issued an address calling attention to the sound-money victories in the recent elections....General Weyler arrived at Barcelona, Spain, and was greeted by 20,000 cheering people; he made several speeches ... Premier Sagasta declared that the government of Spain would in no way modify its programme of autonomy for Cuba.

Wednesday, November 24.—It is announced that President McKinley and Secretary of the Treasury Gage have agreed upon a plan for currency reform, which will be set forth in the president's message to Congress....The United States consul at Woodstock, New Brunswick, reports that since the Dingley tariff went into effect trade relations between that part of Canada and the United States have been at a standstill....The national committee of the middle-of-the-road Populists, which has been meeting in St. Louis, called a national convention of that party for April 6, 1898....The semi-official organs in Germany regard the Hayti trouble as settled, and acknowledge the "friendly attitude of the United States, which has materially assisted the settlement"....The opposing elements in the lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath fought in the chamber for about a quarter of an hour.

Thursday, November 25.—Three hundred Americans had a dinner at the Hotel Cecil in London, at which Ambassador Hay was among the speakers; Ambassador White was among the speakers at the dinner of Americans in Berlin....The Hawaiian minister in Washington said he expected an amicable settlement of the trouble between his country and Japan at an early day....The sitting of the lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath was again closed on account of the disorderly tactics of the opposition....The flag of Austria was duly saluted at Mersina by Turkish guns, with all the ceremonial demanded by the government of Austria.....A letter from Georgetown, British Guiana, says that Great Britain's legal experts have found documents which fully confirm the British boundary claims.

Friday, November 26.—The report that Canada would refuse consent to a suspension of pelagic sealing caused much disappointment among officials in Washington....Police protected the president of the lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath from violence and ejected eleven disorderly members of the opposition....Reports come from the West African coast of a conflict between French and British forces in the hinterland of Lagos....Germany has made demands upon China in connection with the murder of German missionaries.

Saturday, November 27.—President McKinley promised to send a special message to Congress in behalf of the Pan-American Exposition to be held on the Niagara River in 1899....The Canadian government, in declining the proposal of the United States to suspend pelagic sealing, says that such action can be taken only by the British Parliament....An official forecast says that the German government's naval bill will provide for sixty-nine new warships, to be built in the next seven years....In connection with German naval operations against the Chinese, and the possible seizure of territory, Emperor William is reported as saying: "We must forestall England."

Sunday, November 28.—According to Republican computation a comparison of the first four months under the Dingley act with the corresponding period under the Wilson act shows that the Government's receipts were over $7,000,000 greater under the present tariff law ....Two steamers arrived at Seattle from Alaska, bringing $130,000 in drafts and gold

dust; twenty-five returning gold-seekers, who left Dawson the middle of October, declared that the food shortage at that time almost amounted to a famine....The members of the Badeni ministry tendered their resignations to the emperor of Austria, and they were accepted; Baron Gautsch, a member of the retiring ministry, was asked to form a new cabinet; the news becoming public, a number of riotous demonstrations in the streets of Vienna ended.

Monday, November 29.—The gale which swept the English coasts was one of the worst in recent years; many lives were lost and a large number of vessels have foundered....Baron Von Halleben, the recently appointed German ambassador, presented his credentials to President McKinley, qualifying as the diplomatic representative at Washington....The estimate of the armor factory board of the cost of the proposed armor plant for the Government is $3,700,000 ....As soon as the new cabinet is formed in Austria Baron Gautch will enter into negotiations with the leaders of the Germans and Czechs to bring about a modification of the ordinances making the Czech language coördinate with the German.

Tuesday, November 30.—The cabinet considered the subject of sending relief to the people in the Klondike....Secretary of the Treasury Gage estimates the deficit for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1898, at not more than $25,000,000....Dr. Henry Dresler, emeritus professor of Latin and Greek in Columbia University, died in New York....Emperor William opened the last session of the present Reichstag; the increase of the navy occupied the principal place in the speech from the throne....An imperial ukase, issued in Russia, orders the coinage and issue of five-rouble gold pieces, equal in value to one-third of the imperial, which weighs 12.902 grammes, .900 fine.

Wednesday, December 1.—Justice Field's retirement from the United States Supreme Court took effect; Justice Harlan becomes the senior associate....The gold output of the Cripple Creek, Colorado district, in November, was $1,258,600, the largest for one month in the history of the camp....The demand of the United States for an indemnity from the Turkish government for the pillage of American missions at Kharput, Marash, and Haskonj, Armenia, has been received. The Porte denies any responsibility for the pillaging on the ground that the government acted under stress of unavoidable circumstances....There was a renewal of rioting in Prague; the windows in a number of buildings were broken, and German shops were plundered....In the Italian Chamber the minister of finance showed a surplus of 34,000,000 lire for the financial year of 1896–97.

Thursday, December 2.—Mrs. Nancy Allison McKinley, mother of the President, was stricken with paralysis at her home at Canton, Ohio. President McKinley left Washington for Canton....Representative Dingley, the chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee, says currency legislation cannot be expected from the free-silver majority in the Senate....The emperor of China has declared that he would rather forfeit his crown than agree to the conditions demanded by Germany as redress for the murder of two German missionaries and destruction of mission property....The Cuban insurgents have captured the village of Guisa; the garrison surrendered after losing ninety soldiers killed and wounded; the insurgents secured a quantity of supplies.

Friday, December 3.—Commissioner of Internal Revenue Forman anticipates an increase of $8,300,000 in internal revenue receipts in the current fiscal year....Marshal Blanco proposes to employ white and negro guerrillas against the Cubans, replying to the rebel tactics with similar warfare....The British forces in India have inflicted severe punishment upon the rebellious tribesmen....The German navy department has ordered more reinforcements to China....Prague continues under military control, and business is being resumed.

Saturday, December 4.—President McKinley took leave of his dying mother at Canton and left for Washington....The Nicaragua canal commission sailed from New York on the gunboat "Newport"....There was an exciting debate on the Dreyfus case in the French Chamber of Deputies, after which a vote of confidence in the government was passed; Count Esterhazy is to be court-martialed....A British expedition left Bombay for the island of Mombasa, off the coast of Zanzibar....The Hungarian premier will introduce bills in the Hungarian Diet maintaining the status quo in Austria-Hungary....The Italian cabinet has resigned....The definite treaty of peace between Turkey and Greece was signed.

Sunday, December 5.—It was officially announced in Washington that Governor Griggs of New Jersey had accepted the office of attorney-general, to succeed Mr. McKenna....Prince Hohenlohe, German imperial chancellor, has refused to recommend that the emperor declare Captain Dreyfus innocent of the charges made against him....Admiral Von Steinect, commander-in-chief of the Austro-Hungarian navy, died in Vienna.

Monday, December 6.—The first regular session of the 55th Congress met in Washington; a message of unusual length was received from the President. The House adjourned out of respect to the memories of Senator George, of Mississippi, and Representative Wright, of Massachusetts, who had died during the recess.... Comment in the financial community on the President's message was most favorable....Two German cruisers arrived at Port au Prince and delivered an ultimatum to the Haytian government, giving it eight hours to pay the Lueder indemnity....The debate on the naval bill began in the Reichstag....To a deputation from the Parliament Emperor William spoke strongly of his determination to increase Germany's efficiency as a naval power....King Humbert has intrusted the Marquis di Rudini with the task of forming a new ministry....The campaign of Sir William Lockhart against the rebel tribesmen in India will be suspended until spring.

Tuesday, December 7.—The President's mother still lingers and the President has returned to Canton....Further rioting in Bohemia is suppressed by the troops....A special session of the Illinois state legislature is called for today....The Anglo-Egyptian expedition occupies Metemmeh on the Nile.

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INQUIRIES ANSWERED

WILL the editor of SELF CULTURE kindly name a few of the more noted winter health resorts on the continent that would be favorable to an invalid? Is there not some book that indicates these resorts and gives some account of them?

There are several works published in which such information is given as is sought by our correspondent; any librarian or bookseller will indicate what they are. Among these, perhaps the most inexpensive and handy is Appleton's "American Winter Resorts" (price 50 cents). We would, however, specially commend the perusal of an intelligently written article on the subject of "Winter Health Resorts," which appeared in a recent issue (that of Nov. 27th) of the "Medical Record" (Wm. Woods and Co., Publishers: E. 10th St., New York), price 10 cents. In the article, the writer descants on the advantage of an ocean voyage to those who suffer from insomnia or other nervous disorder and to persons predisposed to consumption or who may be in the incipient stages of it. The tonic effect is very helpful to such, for every breath at sea, as he rightly says, is brand new, and when exhaled "it never hovers around to taint the next inspiration, but is wafted away and speedily transformed into the pure elements of the atmosphere."

Not everyone, of course, can profit by an ocean voyage, and in winter the discomforts are apt to nullify all the advantages. To those who are not good sailors and have not the endurance for a long sea voyage, the writer commends the Bermudas, which can be reached within forty-eight hours from New York; he also instances Jamaica, and Nassau, the capital of the Bahamas, as congenial winter resorts. The mean winter temperature of Nassau is about 70° F. A physician, writing in another health article in the issue referred to of the "Medical Record," cites the Bahama Islands as being specially beneficial to those suffering from acute or semi-acute affections of the lungs; from nervous afflictions, especially those of a diabetic character; from rheumatism in all its chronic or semi-chronic conditions; as well as to those who suffer from stomach troubles, from nervous prostration, or are in a run-down condition. St. Thomas, St. Kitts, and Caracas, the capital of Venezuela, are also cited as favorable resorts.

Of inland resorts, the Carolinas are indicated as offering many healthful and salubrious regions for invalids, the chief of which are Asheville, N. C., and Aiken, and Summerville, S.C. Savannah, Ga., is another delightful winter resort, and Augusta and Thomasville, Ga., in the Pine Belt, are highly spoken of. Florida presents a combination of influences conducive to healthfulness, and the seeker after pleasant winter resorts is referred to Jacksonville, St. Augustine, Tampa, and the resorts on the Indian River, and the upper St. John. The Hot Springs of Arkansas, San Antonio in Texas, and the Italian climate of southern California complete the list, with mention of Monterey, San Bernardino, Santa Barbara, Los Angelos, and San Diego. In these resorts, pure air and sunshine are, as a rule, plentifully to be had, and these are the prerequisites of health, and are indispensable for restoring it, when from any cause it has become impaired.

Please inform me who first quoted the line: "The pen is mightier than the sword;" also kindly explain the meaning of the phrase "to out-herod Herod." Oblige also by informing me if, by continuing my subscription to SELF CULTURE, it entitles me to membership in the Home University League.

The line "the pen is mightier than the sword" occurs first in Bulwer-Lytton's play of "Richelieu," Act II., Sc. 2.

The phrase "out-herods Herod" is Shakespeare's. See his "Hamlet," Act III., Sc. 2. It occurs in his instruction to players on the stage, not to tear a passion to tatters, and not to overdo the simulated character of "a termagant," or even a Nero or Herod. The phrase is a common one in modern literature, as in the expression "to out-Darwin Darwin,"—meaning thereby that a writer on Evolution may carry Darwin's hypothesis, to account for the origin of life, farther than Darwin himself intended it.

No! subscription merely to SELF CULTURE does not carry with it the privileges of the Home University League.

In an article on "Discovery Day and Independence Day," in your issue for August, 1895, SELF CULTURE states that "if Columbus had not discovered the American continent, the Cabots would have discovered it." Such, in my view, is not the case, as Cabot ridiculed Columbus's idea at the English Court, and it was not until the latter had made two successful voyages that Cabot set out on his expedition. Had it not been

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for Columbus, America would probably not, at that early era, have been discovered.

Your advocacy of Columbus, against the claims of other early discoverers, does credit to your sympathy with the man and his struggles, but is hardly consistent with historical facts or legitimate deductions from them. What is said in SELF CULTURE in the article you refer to, though, perhaps, a little lacking in appreciation of the great Genoese sailor, is a fair presentation of the circumstances, and reasonably makes a case for Cabot, rather than for Columbus, as the discoverer of the North American Continent. Columbus, we know, did not set out to discover America, but to seek a western passage to the East Indies; and when he and Cabot did stumble upon outlying portions of the Western Continent, both had at first the idea that they had reached the dominions of the Grand Cham of China. It is idle to refute the idea that if Columbus had not discovered the New World, Cabot would have discovered it; while it is still more idle to say that if neither had made their voyages, the Continent would have remained long a *terra incognita*. It is true, that every great discovery excites expectation of others like it; yet towards the close of the fifteenth century, with the invention of the mariner's compass and the spirit of maritime adventure then abroad, discovery was in the air. The Cabots and the English Court were more likely to be better informed as to what lay to the unknown Westward than were Columbus and the Courts of Portugal and Spain, since the geographical position of the British Islands, and intercourse with Norse navigators who had for centuries made voyages to the New World, were favorable to enlightenment on the subject. Hence the voyages of the Cabots must have been made under more assured conditions than were those of Columbus, while they established England's claims to territorial sovereignty on this continent, by right of discovery,—a claim far beyond that which Columbus, or Spain for him, would have been justified in making.

Will you kindly publish, in your excellent magazine, a list of Wedding Anniversaries, and indicate the nature of the presents (wooden, china, silver, etc.) that are suitable to each?

You will find such questions, with much else of a like kind, answered in an exceedingly valuable and instructive volume (price $1.50) issued by the publishers of this magazine, The Werner Company, Akron, O. From it ("Manual of Useful Information") we extract the following for you:—

The society titles of wedding anniversaries are: 1st cotton; 2nd paper; 3rd leather; 5th wooden; 7th woollen; 10th tin; 12th silk and fine linen; 15th crystal; 20th china; 25th silver; 30th pearl; 40th ruby; 50th golden; 60th diamond.

Will SELF CULTURE favor an interested reader by giving, in an early issue, the full text of Tennyson's "Crossing the Bar"?

Here is the Laureate's Poem:—

"Sunset and evening star,
And one clear call for me!
And may there be no moaning of the bar,
When I put out to sea.

"But such a tide as moving seems asleep,
Too full for sound and foam,
When that which drew from out the boundless deep
Turns again home.

"Twilight and evening bell,
And after that the dark!
And may there be no sadness of farewell,
When I embark.

"For tho' from out our bourne of Time and Place
The flood may bear me far,
I hope to see my Pilot face to face
When I have cross'd the bar."

Please explain in an early issue of SELF CULTURE on what principle curved balls are thrown in playing base ball. The matter has been discussed among a number of my friends who are players, but some of them scout the idea that there is a scientific principle involved; others hold that there is, but do not know what the principle is.

Curve-pitching, as practiced in modern base ball playing, is a scientific fact, the practice of which preceded the discovery of its principle. For a long time after its existence was familiar to every ball player and spectator of the game, there were men who proclaimed the impossibility of there being any law that governed the motion, and who declared it to be simply an "optical delusion." It has, however, been practically demonstrated in a way that leaves no room for doubt, and a scientific explanation has been found for it. In the "Scientific American," of August 28, 1886, will be found a very explicit demonstration of the theory of the curve. The demonstration is, however, accompanied with figures of a ball moving through

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the air, so that it is better understood by consulting the representation explained in the sketch. The philosophy of the curve is, in itself, quite simple. *A ball is thrown through the air, and, at the same time, given a rotary motion upon its own axis, so that the resistance of the air to its forward motion is greater upon one point than upon another. The result is the movement of the ball away from the retarded side.*

It was Mr. Arthur Cummings, of the Star Club of New York, who first noticed that, by giving a certain twist to the ball, it was made to describe a rising, outward curve, and his remarkable success with it finally led to the general introduction of curve-pitching. The principles involved cannot be well understood without the aid of figures representing the position of the ball in its course through the air, as it is acted upon, first, by the impetus it receives from the arm of the pitcher; second, by the direction and intensity of the retarding action of the air; and third, by the rotary motion, which generates a current of air about the periphery of the ball, similar to that caused by the revolving fly-wheel of a steam-engine. See the "Scientific American," for August 28, 1886. See also "Base Ball," by John Montgomery Ward, published by the Athletic Publishing Co. (Phila.)

Will you kindly give me a clue to the person of "Lenore" in Poe's poem, "The Raven"? Was she a poetic creation merely, or does she represent any real personage in life?

"Lenore," in Poe's poem, "The Raven," refers to his cousin-wife, whom he married at Baltimore in 1835. Her name was Virginia Eleonora Clemm, but her husband's favorite mode of addressing her was "Lenore." Under the name, "Eleonora," the poet has told the world the story of their love, in the "Southern Literary Messenger." Poe has also given us an account of the composition of "The Raven," in which he follows the various steps of building up the poem in his mind, and the fashioning of it. This analysis is found in a biography of the poet by Eugene L. Didier (published by A. C. Armstrong & Co., New York). The following is an excerpt from this work: "For weeks and months after his wife's death, Poe was buried in an agony of grief, from which nothing could arouse him. His books, his studies, were abandoned; his pen was thrown aside; his usual occupation was neglected. He wandered aimlessly about the country by day, and at night kept long and solitary vigil at the grave of his 'lost Lenore.'" He seemed to anticipate the death of his consumptive wife in that line of "The Raven" where he says: "My soul from out that shadow shall be lifted nevermore." The poem which follows "The Raven," entitled, "Lenore," refers to the same sad loss of the poet.

In "Ben Hur," a novel by Gen. Lew Wallace, on page 85 of one edition, and on page 89 of another, are these words: "Ishmael is not *lawfully* high priest." *Why* was not Ishmael "lawfully" high priest? And where can full information on this subject be obtained?

The High Priests, as we know, were the descendants of Aaron, and for some time succeeded according to descent. But, when one line lapsed, doubts would arise; and sometimes one family was set aside and another substituted — why, we can hardly now tell. In later times these things were regulated by the Kings, and in New Testament times the Roman Procurator seems to have made the appointment. But in some cases he was induced illegally to remove a High Priest, in order to make way for another who had bribed him or had political influence. That would have been an illegal appointment, and the man substituted would not have been "lawfully high priest." This, we take it, is the meaning of the reference.

Since the above was in type, the conjecture ventured upon has received confirmation in further research. At the time of our Lord's life on earth, Valerius Grotus, the new Roman Procurator, removed Annas (or Hannas) from the office of High Priest and appointed Ishmael or Ismael in his place. This was an illegal act, and hence Ishmael "was not lawfully High Priest."

I should like to know what were Darwin's views on religion. I have been told that he once gave expression to some opinion on the subject, in answer to a request from a correspondent, but I cannot alight upon it. Will SELF CULTURE help me?

The following passage, from the "Life and Letters of Darwin," by his son, is, no doubt what is wanted. The elder Darwin wrote:—

"The impossibility of conceiving that this grand and wondrous universe, with our conscious selves, arose through chance, seems to me the chief argument for the existence of God; but whether this is an argument of real value, I have never been able to decide. I am aware that if we admit a First Cause, the mind still craves to know whence it came, and how it arose. Nor can I overlook the difficulty from

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the immense amount of suffering through the world. I am also induced to defer to a certain extent to the judgment of the many able men who have fully believed in God; but here again I see how poor an argument this is. The safest conclusion seems to me that the whole subject is beyond the scope of man's intellect; but man can do his duty."

Would you kindly indicate in SELF CULTURE the proper pronunciations of the various well-known statues of Venus?

Venus (*vē'nus*), Callipyge (*kā-lip'i-jē*), v. of Genetrix (*jĕn'e-triks*), v. of Arles (*ārlz*), v. of Capua (*kap'ū-a*), v. of Cnidus (*nī'dus*), v. of Medici (*mĕd'e-chē* or *mā-dē'chē*), v. of Melos (*mē'los*), v. of Syracuse (*sir'a-kūs*), v. of Urbino (*ōr-bē'no*), and Venus of the Shell, of the Hermitage, and of the Capitol.

Please give me some information concerning the city of Kiev, in Russia, how the name is pronounced, what gives it its importance, and how it comes to be termed the "Holy City."

You will find full information respecting Kiev (pronounced *Kīyef*) under "Kieff," in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XIV., p. 69. It was once the chief city of Russia and the centre of Russian learning in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. It lost its population and importance after it had been devastated by a Mongol invasion in 1240 A.D. Its cathedral was built in 1307, on the model of Ste. Sophie at Constantinople, and the town possesses many beautiful churches, a university, and several monasteries. In it are the tombs of many Russian saints, and, hence, the city is known as the Holy City — the "mother city," and the "Canterbury" of Russia.

In the article on Slavery in the Encyclopædia Britannica, it is said that "a humble monk was the means of putting an end to gladiatorial contests at Rome." Will you kindly let me know where to look for particulars of this incident and state who the monk was?

The monk referred to in the Britannica was Telemachus, an Asiatic missionary, who, in the year 404 A.D., travelled from the East to seek to abolish the gladiatorial combats. In the attempt, he fell a victim to his own enthusiasm for their repression, and, on learning of this, Honorius (Flavius) issued an edict abolishing the games. In 325, Constantine the Great for a time suppressed them, and in 500 Theodoric put a stop to them in the West. See the close of the article on "Games" in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. X., page 66.

Will SELF CULTURE kindly answer the following inquiries?

1. Is Cæsar or Brutus the leading character in the play of "Julius Cæsar"?

2. Cicero is an imposing figure in history, after Cæsar himself the most imposing, yet he is treated like Cæsar, without the least regard to his greatness. Why is this?

1. Though the recent historians of Rome take an unfavorable view of the character of Brutus, he is, nevertheless, the real hero of Shakespeare's "Julius Cæsar."

Your second inquiry, regarding Cicero, does not state where the orator is treated, like Cæsar, without regard to his greatness. As a politician we know that he was a failure, perhaps because of his political indecision, but as a man of letters, an orator and a pleader, he ranks among the highest of the characters in ancient history. In Roman affairs, it is true, he was no great power in the world of politics, owing, chiefly, as we have said, to his indecision of character, which led him at one time to stand by Pompey, the senate, and the old republic, at another time to ally himself with Cæsar. In the age of which he was a contemporary, men of letters had not the consideration paid to them that was paid to men of action. This may account for what you complain of, though your statement is indefinite, as we have said, in not showing where Cicero does not get his just due. That at periods in the lives of both men, neither Cæsar nor Cicero was sufficiently estimated by the populace, was owing to the fickleness of popular opinion, and to the turbulence of the times.

Please explain the veto power of the Queen of England.

The power of the British Crown to veto legislation can hardly now be said to exist, for it has not been exercised by the sovereign since the days of Queen Anne (1702–14). Only in extreme emergency would it be necessary to appeal to the royal veto, since the prerogative, in the case of objectionable legislation, where money is voted, in the popular chamber (the House of Commons) is part of the functions of the Upper Chamber (the House of Lords). By the constitution, the crown, however, *does* yossess the right of veto, though, as we have said, it is now never exercised, save in matters of colonial legislation, where acts are disallowed

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when in conflict with the vital interests of the Empire. In domestic legislation, the Crown cannot of itself make any alteration in the existing laws, but may refuse to sanction alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses of Parliament. See the article on Veto in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XXIV., page 207.

Pray, will SELF CULTURE tell me if there is any way for a young man to become a designer in the arts by self-study? The branches of designing I seem to have a taste for are those made use of in carpet manufacture, woven work wall paper, etc.

It is possible that you can learn to become a practical designer without taking a special course at an institute of drawing. A designer usually acquires the knowledge he seeks by one of two methods, either by going into a studio or workshop and making himself familiar with the art, by watching others at work, which, with the aid of some good handbook on the subject, will give him all the knowledge he needs; or else by pursuing a course of study in a school of art. The first method, which must be of a rather fragmentary character, is not likely to result in a good theoretical training. It is supposed by many that a designer, like a musician or a poet, is born, not made. It is a fact that the compositions of untrained artists nearly always reveal certain weaknesses which are caused by their work not having been properly and thoroughly considered beforehand. For those who cannot avail themselves of the advantages of either school or workshop, there are books on the subject, which illustrate all the wonders of design, and which may serve as a scheme or programme of the proper steps to follow in composing. They give such explanations and directions as may be expected from the teacher. The best work of this nature which we find is entitled "Practical Designing," by Gleeson White (price $2.50), Macmillan Co., Publishers, New York. This work is practical and contains chapters on carpet-designing, woven fabrics, pottery, metal work, printed fabrics, floor oilcloths, wall-papers, and book covers. These chapters supply careful rules for the details of the work, and give illustrations of patterns in the different stages they go through on the way to completion.

Will SELF CULTURE kindly give me some points on the best methods of studying law without attending a regular law school? I should also like to have you recommend a good Correspondence School of Law.

To fit yourself for the vocation of a lawyer, you would do well, as a preliminary, to read the articles in the Encyclopædia Britannica bearing upon the different branches of law—those on Jurisprudence, on Common Law, Criminal Law, International Law, Municipal Law, Constitutional Law, as well as the articles on Marriage Laws, the Law of Landlord and Tenant, on Intestacy, on Wills, on Partnerships, on Bankruptcy, on Labor Laws, etc. If you possess Dr. Baldwin's "Guide to Systematic Readings in the Britannica," and turn to the section on "The Lawyer," you will find many valuable suggestions as to the scope of reading to be done in the Britannica.

But, when you have read and studied these articles, with the memoirs of the great jurists, etc., you should either take a course at some law school, or enter a lawyer's office. The one or other course you should pursue before you can hope to make yourself proficient as a practitioner or be able to take a case in court or advise wisely as counsel.

If your ambition is to become a successful practitioner and to be drawn only incidentally into politics, it would be essential to take a thorough and systematic course of study in Law and the principles of jurisprudence. We do not advocate any system of instruction which instructs in parts only. It is said that a self-educated man is usually educated "in spots" and unevenly, and that a college-educated man is educated symmetrically. This is often exemplified in the study of law. The whole body of law cannot be understood by a cursory study of special parts. An understanding of the relations which one part bears to another is necessary to a comprehension of the proper function even of a part and the application thereof. This training can be had only by giving yourself proper time and pursuing proper methods. We therefore advise you to enter a good law school where good modern text-books are used. An evening school would afford sufficient instruction, if you can do some home study. The discipline and practical hints you would get the benefit of at a school would outweigh the expense incurred. If you cannot attend a law school, the next best method would be to go into the office of a first-class practicing attorney as a student. The practical knowledge you could avail yourself of in an office would be useful, though it would call for more application and self-effort on your part to get through in as short time than if you were at school. If you could effect an arrangement to attend a course

of law lectures at a college, together with study of cases at home, you would get a good knowledge of law.

You will find in the advertising pages of SELF CULTURE reference to one or more good Correspondence Schools of Law.

Will the "League" kindly answer the following questions: —

(1) Is the plea of a bona-fide purchaser for value and without notice, a good defense as against a dower-right?

(2) Why cannot the State be sued without its consent?

(3) What would be considered reasonable damages in a suit for trespass, the injury being death of the husband, if the widow married a year and a half after his death? His wages were $15 per week.

(1) No! The right of dower is of so transcendent a character that a husband cannot, by any separate act, as by alienating the land, or encumbering it with debts, deprive the widow of her right.

(2) The State being the sovereign which creates a court, and from which that court therefore derives all its power, cannot be sued therein except by its own express consent.

(3) The question is too indefinite. It would, however, be one for a jury to decide, and would depend entirely upon all the circumstances from which the death resulted.

Kindly advise a constant reader of SELF CULTURE what you think would be the prospects of a young man of good business habits who desires to choose telegraphy as his life-work. Also, please name an institution which one could attend and get a thorough education for the profession.

There are few callings for a young man better suited to the present needs of business life than that of telegraphy. This is a commercial age and we are a commercial nation and in all departments of commerce the service of telegraphy is needed. A knowledge of it is, we might say, the pressing need of the hour. In telegraphy as in every other department of knowledge, the best trained and thoroughly skilled workers get the best places, and the young man seeking a position, so qualified, stands a far better chance of getting permanent employment at a good salary, especially if he is capable of rendering superior service. That is perhaps the best safeguard to protect a young man from being crowded to the wall by those who, through special preparation or better application, have become superior workers. Telegraphy is a vocation where there is especial need of accuracy and skill, and there are few callings where these qualifications, together with promptness and close attention to duty, will insure more profitable employment or better means of self-support. Such service is always in demand.

The art may be learned at any of the private schools of telegraphy which are scattered about in the various States. It is sometimes taught at Business Colleges and Technological Institutes. No doubt there are good schools of telegraphy in the large cities of your own State.

Kindly advise me as to the comparative age of Egypt and the Chinese Empire. I desire to know which is the oldest settled country. Permit me to add that I find SELF CULTURE of indispensable value to any one interested in educational matters.

The question you ask is, with our present knowledge, impossible to answer with any degree of precision. In the case of Egypt, the matter is more difficult of solution, owing to the disagreement in chronology between Egyptologists and the decipherers of ancient monuments. The epoch of Menes is the first human point in the history of ancient Egypt. This, for instance, has been placed chronologically by the three leading authorities as follows: at 5004 B. C. by Mariette, at 4455 B. C. by Brugsch, and at 3892 B. C. by Lepsius. The latest of these dates throws Egyptian history back about 1800 years before the era of Abraham. Even this, according to recent decipherers, and noted Assyriologists, is comparatively modern times when we reach the records of Babylonia, since traces of a primitive civilization have been found in the valley of the Euphrates and among the Akkads (Accadians), or early Babylonians, back to a period so remote as 5000 to 6000 B. C. Monumental history is to-day being unearthed and deciphered that may even antedate this early chronology. Meanwhile fairly accurate chronology in ancient Babylon, begins, we know, with Sargon I., King of Agade, 3800 B. C.

The early chronology of China, which is measured not by centuries but by sexagenaries (proceeding by sixties), is more difficult to get at, since the modern investigator has in great measure to depend upon tradition, or upon records that cannot be so well substantiated as those upon stone. The first cycle of Chinese dynastic history is made to commence with the sixtieth year of Hwang Ti, in 2637 B. C. But this is a merely conventional arrangement,

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since there were Chinese in China long before the era of Hwang Ti; while it is also known that the Chinese were not the earliest inhabitants of their own country. By some the founder of the Empire is said to be Fohi (2240 B. C.) — supposed to be the Noah of the Bible.

I again take the liberty of imposing on your good nature, this time for suggestions to enable me to take effective part in a forthcoming debate, on the subject: "Resolved, that a woman should marry for love, rather than for wealth and position." The affirmative side is to be sustained by married men; the negative by bachelors. The writer will be on the negative side.

(1) It is the fault of modern society and its usages that such a subject as whether a woman shall marry for love or money should need to be discussed. But as the social world exists at the present time, and taking cognizance of the conditions and demands made upon its members, a woman does wisely to look upon the practical side of marriage, and the topic in question may well bear vigorous discussion with hearty approval of the sentiment in favor of the woman who places wealth and position before modern love in marriage.

(2) It may be asserted at the outset, that a perfect social scheme for the regulation of the instincts which lead to marriage has existed at no time in the history of the world, and that if society will not conform to ideal marriages, it would seem a wise arrangement that suggests women contemplating marriage to conform to the conventions of society, and not attempt to practice an ideal marriage system in an imperfect world. Such a system needs an equally perfect social system to carry it into practice.

(3) Much also depends upon the idea conveyed by the word "love." Those who marry for love are carried away by an unreasoning impulse. Marriage is a permanent union, but who can guarantee the permanency of love? Is it not beyond the power of the will and if so, how can its decay be prevented? The state of the soul which felt the absolute necessity of finding satisfaction in a union, physical as well as ideal, cannot, as a rule, be maintained, and the real be kept under the mastery of the ideal to the end. Such a delusion must be regarded as impossible physiologically. Satisfaction too often produces satiety, satiety weariness and disgust, and the same two individuals, who before marrige would give all for love, after marriage would give very little indeed for it, and let some other "state of the soul" usurp its place.

(4) Pleasure, material comforts, such as are derived from the possession of wealth, freedom from care, social distinction, power for good, which riches enable a woman to practice— these are lasting sources of satisfaction to the body and soul.

(5) From Herbert Spencer's "Principles of Ethics," the latest epitome of the latest philosophy, we learn that the ethical sanction of marriage consists in the fact that without marriage we should not have been born, and that, therefore, we ought to marry that others may enjoy the same existence. This is indisputable. Love and marriage, whatever else they may be, are Nature's means of securing what appears to be her chief care, the perpetuation of the species, and man, including woman, would seem to have little liberty in the matter. Something like natural equity requires that as each individual is indebted to past individuals for the cost of producing and rearing him, he shall be at some equivalent cost for the benefit of posterity. With this serious underlying fact, then, marriage should be wisely and practically considered. Especially should woman look well to the sterling qualities of the man she takes for a husband. The "equivalent cost of rearing individuals" does not come from a compound of moonlight and kisses, forget-me-nots and tears, nor any such milk-and-water sentiment as love is deemed to be in much of the literature of the present time. A wise woman, in looking forward to marriage, will consider the welfare and proper bringing up of her future family and of her place in the ranks of progressive and advancing members of the social sphere in which she desires to move. To do this, it will be necessary for her to consider the position and means of the husband, and not allow the often misunderstood feeling of love wholly to actuate her choice.

(6) John Stuart Mill, in his rather cold-blooded way, says of love: "Much valuable time is wasted by mankind and womankind upon the sentiment of love. Too much of the attention and energy of great men, who might otherwise be greater, is given to its consideration and indulgence." See "Westminster Review," Vol. 140, 142, 143 and 145, articles on "Love and Marriage." See also "Modern Women," by Mrs. Lynn Linton; and the series of essays published by the "North American Review," on the subject. See also SELF CULTURE, Vol. V., article "Social Customs."

Please answer the following through your valuable columns: (1) Will a dynamo draw magnetism from a magnet? If so, (2) how should a magnet be

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taken from a dynamo (after it has lain on the field magnets) in order that this may not occur? (3) How should two dynamos be connected in order that they may work as one dynamo? (4) Explain the use of a "counter-balance" on an engine.

(1) A dynamo will become magnetized from a magnet. Take the magnet, or whatever you wish to demagnetize, and suspend it exactly between the two pole pieces of the dynamo, at an equal distance from each. Draw the magnet slowly and evenly away from the influence.

(2) Two dynamos may be connected as follows: Connect the positives of both machines together, and the two negatives together; connect the field wires open for Rheostat of both machines together, and one Rheostat can be used for both machines. This would be better understood with the use of a dynamo for illustration. If there is anything further you desire to understand, address a letter of inquiry, giving more data, to Mr. F. M. Roth, care Chicago Edison Company, 167 Adams St. (Enclose stamp for reply and mention SELF CULTURE.)

(3) The counter-balance in an engine is the weight inserted in the fly-wheel to overcome a dead point. It is designed to balance or counter-poise the weight of some object whose gravity affects the opposite side of the wheel.

I am not sure that the following quotation is accurate: "And the lawyer hummed in court that afternoon an old love song (or tune)." Will you please inform me from what work it is taken, and who is the author?

The quotation you are in search of is evidently that to be found in Whittier's "Maud Müller," where this scene is described:—

The judge stops by the wayside to
"Ask a draught from the spring that flowed
Through the meadow and across the road."

Maud Müller "fills for him her small tin-cup," and the judge muses:—

"Would she were mine, and I, to-day,
Like her, a harvester of hay."
. . . . . .
But the lawyers smiled that afternoon
When he hummed in court an old love tune."

Will SELF CULTURE please furnish some points on the negative side of the question: "Resolved that universal peace will be a reality in the near future."

Great armaments and the increasing destructiveness of rifled cannon and the other modern weapons of precision may be said to make for peace among the nations; but race prejudices, international jealousies, and an aggressive and competitive commerce, are everywhere against it. Even our own country, removed from the turbulence and strife, current among old world nations, as it is, and dedicated, as one would suppose it to be, to peace, has only recently refused to join the motherland of Great Britain in a treaty of Arbitration. The spirit of the times is contentious and hostile, and this is seen as much as in anything else in the attitude of governments and nations towards each other. The argument each uses for increasing the military or naval establishment is that one or other of the Powers is adding to its offensive and defensive strength and so is likely to become more of a menace to other nations. This does not betoken any tendency to peace or abandonment of the belligerent status. In these days of sharp competitive commerce, national interests clash on every side, and the situation is rendered more acute by irritating rivalry, and the aggressiveness of unscrupulous, dominant powers.

Where the vital interests of nations are concerned, and, as often happens, are irreconcilable, it is idle to talk of universal peace or anything approaching to it. The time has not yet come for applying abstract moral doctrines to international politics. Nations are peculiarly susceptible to unfriendly criticism and opinion expressed by another and, it may be, neighboring nation, and this, together with the sharp advantages taken by diplomats in these days when international differences come to be talked over, breeds contention and an angry, uncompromising, infelicitous spirit. War, rather than peace, is often the outcome, and the mood of nations is neither heavenly nor millennial.

I notice that the Britannica (Vol. XVI., page 473) says that "the Premiership in England is now almost invariably associated with the post of 'First Lord of the Treasury.'" How is it that Lord Salisbury holds, with the Premiership, the portfolio of Foreign Secretary? Is that the only exception in recent years?

I would like to ask, also, how may the English Parliament be dissolved? Does disagreement in the Cabinet occasion dissolution?

(1) The statement is correct in the Encyclopædia Britannica, to the effect that the Premiership in England is usually associated with the post of First Lord of the Treasury. In fact, we do not know any exception to the observance of

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this rule since the Cabinet System came into vogue in England, save that of the Marquis of Salisbury. During his three administrations (1885–86, 1886–92, and '95–98), Lord Salisbury has taken the post of Foreign Secretary, though at the outset of his 2nd administration he acted for a short time as First Lord. Later on in that administration, Hon. W. H. Smith and Hon. A. J. Balfour acted successively as First Lord, and during the present (the 3rd) administration, Mr. Balfour acts also in that capacity. The system, no doubt, Lord Salisbury thinks, has its advantages, since it enables a Premier whose seat is in the House of Peers to have the acting and responsible First Lord in the Popular House.

(2) Parliaments are dissolved in England by effluxion of time. By the Septennial Act (1714), the duration of Parliament was extended from three to seven years, so that Governments might not be affected oftener by change of popular opinion as expressed at the polls. Disagreements in the Cabinet are usually not causes for dissolution, the self-respecting minister who is not in accord with the Premier or his colleagues retiring when his successor is chosen. The latter then goes to the country for the ratification of his appointment. Dissolution generally follows defeat in the Commons on any vital measure or on a decisive vote of non-confidence by its members or on the defection of the supporters of the Government. When the Government suffers such defeat, the Premier (with the Cabinet) must either resign or convince the sovereign that he is entitled to a dissolution or general election, on the ground that the vote of censure does not represent the sentiment of the country.

I should like to have your opinion in regard to the popular belief that underground water or mineral ores can be located by some persons, by means of a forked switch which turns in the hand, when standing over mineral veins or running water.

Belief in divining-rods (generally a forked twig of the rowan or hazel tree) as a means of locating water or the precious metals underground is one of great antiquity. The efficacy of this mode of finding buried treasures or running water is now rarely credited by intelligent persons, and the belief is deemed by men of science a pure superstition. You are right in giving no heed to it. The matter is referred to in the Encyclopædia Britannica as a piece of "chicanery," and "of no avail at all." See the article on the Hazel Tree, Vol. XI., p. 549.

I hope I am not asking too much in requesting you to answer the following questions. Being engaged in electrical affairs, I wish to understand the terms in use in the science. Please, therefore, (1) define and explain the relation to each other of Steam Horse Power and Electrical Horse Power; (2) give definitions of volt, ampère, watt, ohm, and "K. W."; and (3) name a good work on Electrical Words and Terms.

(1) Horse power is a rate of doing work equal to 550 foot-pounds per second, or 33,000 foot-pounds per minute. The foot-pound is the unit of work, and it represents the amount of work, or energy, required to raise one pound vertically through a distance of one foot. The same amount of work, namely, three foot-pounds, is done by raising one pound through a vertical distance of three feet, or three pounds through a vertical distance of one foot. The difference between steam horse power and electric horse power is in the difference in the nature of the power. You will require the use of an Electrical Dictionary containing tables of compilation to understand the relation of the two powers. The unit of electric horse power is "the watt." The energy or work is the "volt," "coulomb," or "joule," and measured in foot-pounds is equal to .737,324 foot-pounds. The volt, coulomb or joule is, therefore, the unit of electric work just as the foot-pound is the unit of mechanical work. One electric horse power is a rate of doing work equal to 746 watts or 746 volt coulombs per second. You can compute this for yourself, or see arranged tables in an Electrical Dictionary.

(2) The "volt" is the practical unit of electro-motive force.

(3) The "ampère" is the practical unit of electric current. Such a rate-of-flow of electricity as transmits one coulomb per second.

(4) The "watt" is the unit of energy, or the combination of both forces called also volt-ampère.

(5) The "ohm" is the unit of electrical resistance. Such a resistance as would limit the flow of electricity under an electro-motive force of one volt to a current of one ampère, or to one coulomb per second.

(6) "K. W." is the contraction for "kilowatt, meaning one thousand watts, the same as "kilo-joule" one thousand joules or kilometre one thousand metres.

It will hardly be possible for you to understand electrical terms without the use of a good recent Electrical Dictionary. The rapid growth of electrical science, and the almost daily addi-

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tions to it of new words, terms, and phrases, coined, as they frequently are, in ignorance of those already existing, have led to the production of an electrical vocabulary that is bewildering in its extent. New applications of electricity by the discovery of new principles of the science is a reason why a recent work should be procured. The best work we can suggest to you is "A Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms, and Phrases," by Edwin J. Houston, published by The W. J. Johnston Company, New York (1894).

I am a reader of your magazine and notice that you occasionally give a synopsis of the plot of a novel. I should like to know where I can procure a book that would give me an outline of the plots of famous works of fiction. Any other suggestions of books useful to me will be much appreciated.

Since receiving your communication we have been endeavoring to get on the track of a work, published in New England somewhere, which we once saw, and which gives some analyses of novels, American, English, and Foreign. So far, we have, however, been disappointed in our search; but we shall try further and hope to let you know soon of the work and where it may be procured. The works we occasionally refer to editorially are those you, no doubt, can get access to in any good public library, viz.: Dunlop's "History of Prose Fiction;" Jacob's "Literary Studies;" Raleigh's "The English Novel;" Sidney Lanier's "The English Novel;" Forsyth's "Novels and Novelists of the 18th Century;" Masson's "British Novelists and Their Styles;" Walter Bagehot's "Literary Studies;" Leslie Stephen's "Hours in a Library" (3 series).

I have heard it said that both Thomas Jefferson and Abraham Lincoln were agnostics. Will SELF CULTURE kindly give me some authentic information as to the religious beliefs of these two statesmen?

The term "agnostic" is so indefinite and indeterminate that it is difficult to answer your inquiry satisfactorily. If you mean that either Jefferson or Lincoln did not believe in a God and a future state, then the epithet "agnostic," if applied to them, is *not* true. In Jefferson's writings occur many passages in which he owns to a belief in the Deity — where he speaks of "the God who gave us life, gave us also liberty," and where he says, "I tremble for my country when I reflect that God is just." In the Declaration of Independence, which he penned, he also speaks of "the laws of nature and of Nature's God," and "that all men are created equal, and are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights." Among the latest things he penned (1825) is a letter to a godchild, in which occur the injunctions — "Adore God. Reverence and cherish your parents. Love your neighbor as yourself. Be just; be true. Murmur not at the ways of Providence. So shall the life into which you have entered be the portal to one of eternal and ineffable bliss."

It is true that he (Jefferson) endorsed the writings of Thomas Paine, but we hardly call Paine an infidel to-day. Such is the justness and toleration of our age, as well as the point of view from which we now look at what Paine, in the main, fulminated against — the cant, illiberality, and insincerity of his time.

Much the same may be said of Lincoln, though of Lincoln's religious life we do not know much, since he never revealed his whole inner self to any one. In his early life, he was doubtless indifferent to religion, but when he came to high position he appeared to treat office as a trust, and again and again acted as if he were plastic in the hands of a Divine Power. His unblemished life, and thoughtful, humane career, and the consecration of himself to the nation's needs, show that he lived his life under a sense of responsibility to a Higher Power. It is in no sense true to speak of either men as agnostics.

Will you kindly give me, through your interesting pages, any information you can in regard to Russian weddings?

Russian marriages are generally arranged through the priests of the Greek Church. Much importance is attached to the amount of dower which the bride is to bring, and some member of the higher clergy acts as an intermediary in preparing the settlements. A well-to-do bridegroom must present a gift to a monastery and another to his parish church; the bride, through her friends, is expected to clothe some statue of the virgin with a gown of silver brocade enriched with jewels, according to the piety and ability of the donor. To this, in some parts of southern Russia, is added a gift of two white doves to "the pope," which recalls the worship of Venus.

The consent of parents is necessary to a marriage up to the age of thirty, in the case of men, and twenty-five in that of women; but young people are at liberty to appeal to the civil

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authorities if parental consent is arbitrarily withheld. In this event, the parents are called upon to show reason for their refusal. The reason must not be mercenary, unless one of the young people is heir to a landed estate. These appeals are rare, however, because the Russians are a marrying people and dispose of their children early in life. In the middle and lower classes men marry at twenty, when not drafted by the army conscription. In the ranks of the aristocracy a young man usually goes off to see the world before settling down, but he is often betrothed before starting out, to a young lady, it may be, not yet out of the schoolroom, and he weds her immediately upon his return.

There is no country which has so few "old maids" as Russia. The great ridicule attached to the epithet of "old maid" when not borne by a nun, has possibly something to do with the unwillingness of ladies to assume it. When a young woman has reached the age of twenty-five without finding a mate, she generally sets out on what she calls a pilgrimage, if poor—on a round of travels if rich; and in either case she turns up, after a time, as a widow. Widows are as plentiful as spinsters are scarce. Etiquette, of course, forbids any allusion to a lady's deceased husband in her presence.

When a couple are engaged, a betrothal feast is held, and the bride-elect has a lock of her hair cut off in the presence of witnesses and given to the bridegroom, who, in turn, presents a silver ring set with a turquoise. In some parts of the country, an almond cake, and a gift of bread and salt, are added by the future husband. From this moment the two are plighted. Much importance is attached to the ring, and, among poor people, who cannot afford silver and turquoise rings, tin and a bit of blue stone are substituted. These betrothal rings are kept as heirlooms, but must not be made to serve twice. On the wedding day, the bride comes to the church dressed in white; but it is only among the higher classes, who imitate western fashions, that the bridal costume is entirely white, and that a wreath of orange blossoms is used. Among Russians, pure light blue is the nuptial color, and a coronet of silver ribbon takes the place of the wreath. The wedding ring for the bride is of gold or of some yellow metal, but not a plain hoop; it is generally a double ring with enchased stars. The bridegroom has a ring, too, which the bride puts on his finger in the presence of the pope, or chief officiating clergyman, after she has received his, and this is usually a plain band. After the wedding service, there is an adjournment to a banquet.

Weddings need not be celebrated before midday, nor must they take place in church. In fashionable circles, it is the custom to solemnize them in a drawing-room, and by candle light. There is no departure on a honeymoon tour. The banquet is followed by a ball, then by a supper; and at this last repast, when held in houses where old customs are observed, a new satin slipper, supposed to be the bride's, is produced, and used as a drinking vessel by the bridegroom's friends, who pass it around and drink to the bride's health in it, till it is soaked through and will hold liquor no longer. In houses where speeches are made, it is not the bridegroom but the bride's father, who returns thanks when the bride's health is drunk—this usage resulting from the fact that a father still retains authority over his child though she is married. He may summon her to his home to attend him when he is sick. If he loses his wife, he may claim his married daughter's services as a housekeeper for the first three months of his widowhood, and he very often does so. If the daughter's husband should die, her father may order her to return to his roof, and he becomes *de jure* the guardian of her children. None of these privileges is retained by the married woman's mother.

Divorces are not usually recognized in Russia, but a marriage can be annulled for informalities, and so divorces are frequent. It is generally stated, by writers on Russian customs, that Russian morals regarding the sanctity of marriage are very lax. Russians make good husbands, if we except the fact that they are flirts, and in the lower classes they drink, and being drunk, are often abusive. They are, however, usually indulgent, good tempered, and not jealous. In the case of flagrant infidelity, a Russian may have his wife put in prison for a year, if she be not of noble blood, or of a priest's family. Women have no counter-hold over their husbands, and herein appears the Oriental view still prevailing in the Empire as to the ascendency of the stronger sex. On the whole, however, Russian women of the upper classes have exceptional advantages, and their husbands are chivalrous and indulgent. Many curious marriage customs still prevail among the lower classes and in the provinces, where habits have been handed down from ancient times. This is especially true of the Esthonians, Livonians, Lithuanians, Finns, and Laplanders. Some of these customs are unique and extremely interesting. St. Petersburg can hardly be called a Russian city, nor are its customs, Russian customs. The inhabitants, especially the upper classes, cultivate foreign literature, catch a foreign tone, and adopt foreign manners, and there the Russian has cast away many of the old prejudices and adopted those of Western countries.

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NEW INFORMATION NOTES

The imports of American pig iron and steel into Great Britain in the past year have been unusually large, and the fact is troubling the iron trade in that country. The following shows the increase in the importation in the past year over the year 1896, and is in addition to the importation from Germany. The figures are in tons:—

	1896.	1897.
January	429	9,022
February	857	7,733
March	805	3,701
April	627	8,060
May	750	7,024
June	10	9,057
July	700	3,251
August	1,130	5,220
September	300	2,199
October	3,520	6,797
November	2,765	.....
December	5,524	.....

The imports of American steel into Great Britain for the same period were as follows:—

	1896.	1897.
January	.....	3,193
February	11	6,868
March	4	2,032
April	11	5,302
May	2	2,821
June	30	2,609
July	2	1,186
August	33	326
September	1	665
October	34	520
November	390	.....
December	1,456	.....

The production of American tin plate from Jan. 1 to Oct. 1 this year was 3,396,900 cwts. against 2,441,820 cwts. last year. Imports of foreign plate for the same time were 1,363,716 cwts. against 1,975,869 cwts. the same time last year. This shows that the American plate is steadily supplanting the foreign, as the production in this country has increased nearly 1,000,000 cwts. while imports have fallen off about 600,000 cwts.

There has been much comment here, says a London industrial journal, over the fact that the Glasgow Corporation propose to give their contract for the machinery of the experimental electric traction line to a United States firm; but it should be pointed out that in this they have only followed other owners of tramway lines, for 75½ miles of tramway or railway in this country have been or are being equipped by American firms. The motors required for this total number 252, and the collective horse power 5,250.

The report of Secretary Bliss contains an interesting list of the lands acquired by the Government since its foundation. First, of course, come the cessions of the Western reserve, or the territory lying between the original thirteen States and the Mississippi. These cessions, made by the States, gave the Federal Government 258,504,129 acres. Then, in 1803, came the first of our annexations, the Louisiana purchase from France, 750,686,855 acres. It was followed, in 1819, by the Florida purchase from Spain, 35,264,500 acres. Then came Texas, admitted to the Union in 1845, with a gross area of 170,099,200 acres. The Mexican cession, under the treaty of 1848, brought us 329,623,255 acres, and it was increased three years later by the Gadsden purchase from Mexico, which yielded 29,142,400 acres. The Texas purchase of 1850, comprising parts of Colorado, Kansas, New Mexico, and Oklahoma, added 62,266,953 acres. Thirty years ago occurred our last annexation, that of Alaska, bought from Russia and containing 369,529,600 acres.

The new process of photography, it is said, is as far in advance of the ordinary art as the platinotype of to-day is superior to the daguerreotype of our grandfathers. The latest advance is that of direct photography in gold, silver or other metals, whereby the usual shades of black in the ordinary photograph are replaced by soft yet brilliant tones, on which the effects of light and shade have really beautiful results. Roughly, it may be explained, that a piece of the best mahogany has a film of gold or silver laid on it, and on this the picture is photographed. Over the whole an imperceptible coat of fine varnish is laid, and the wooden plaque may be framed in a gold or silver beading, set up in easel style, or in any other tasteful manner.

Apropos of meteorites the following amusing story is told by Sir Robert Ball respecting one of these celestial visitors. A meteorite which fell on a farm in the United States was claimed by the ground landlord, as his lease reserved all minerals and metals. The tenant objected on the score that the article was not on the property when the lease was executed. The landlord then claimed it as flying game, but the lessee pleaded that the thing had neither feathers nor wings, and claimed it as ground game. But while the dispute was going on the customs officers seized the meteorite, on the ground that the revenue had been defrauded by its introduction into the country without payment of duty!

Twenty million dollars is the sum which the French Government proposes to devote to the Paris Exhibition of 1900. Nearly $10,000,000 will be consumed by the construction of two palaces in the Champs Elysées and those in the Champ de Mars, in the Esplanade des Invalides, and on the quays. The bridges across the Seine are to cost $1,000,000, and the mechanical and electrical services another $1,000,000. In a word, France proposes to aid the Exposition on a scale of unprecedented magnificence.

A fire in London November 19 destroyed nearly one hundred and fifty warehouses. The loss will probably exceed $5,000,000. For four hours and a half the flames had their own way, and it was only after more than a hundred engines had worked an hour that the fire was under control. Fifty engines were pouring tons of water upon the ruins. Hamsell Street was the scene of the outbreak of the fire, which was due to an explosion in connection with a gas engine.

Says the "Pharmaceutical Journal": Extract of the red marrow of bone stimulates the formative process and increases the rate of production of the red blood corpuscles. Enormous increase in the number of blood corpuscles, as actually counted by the hemocytometer, has followed its use, but the results seem to depend on the extract being made immediately after the animal has been slaughtered, and before molecular

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death of the marrow occurs, and that it is not dessicated, nor reduced to the form of a compressed, solidified, and decomposing powder. Glycerin seems to be the best basis for preserving the biologic integrity of the extract. If iron be present in the extract of bone marrow, it is in such a shape that it cannot be detected by ordinary chemical tests, but patients who have taken it look as if they had taken a course of iron.

A new amalgam has been discovered which is said to be a wonderful substitute for gold. It consists of ninety-four parts of copper to six parts of antimony. The copper is melted and the antimony is added, together with a little magnesium and carbonate of lime, to increase the density. The product can be drawn, wrought, and soldered like the precious metal to which it bears a striking resemblance when polished. The cost of manufacture is about 25 cents a pound.

The total miles of telegraph wire in the world has reached 4,908,921, not counting 180,440 miles of submarine cable. Were this all in one continuous line it would wrap around the equator about 198 times. The moon and earth could be connected by 20 lines, with enough to spare to connect every country on the earth. Of the total amount, Europe has 1,764,790; Asia, 310,685; Africa, 99,419; Australia, 217,479; and America, 2,516,548.

The longest-lived animal in the world is the giant tortoise of the Seychelles Islands. One has recently been presented to the zoölogical society of London by Mr. Walter Rothschild which weighs a quarter of a ton. Its known length of life is 150 years, its age previous to its transportation to the island of Mauritius being unknown. In 1833 the governor of Mauritius sent to the zoölogical gardens a tortoise weighing 285 pounds. It was four feet four inches long, and had been in the island of Mauritius for sixty-seven years. The exact period was known, for this tortoise was brought to that island from the Seychelles in 1766. At that time it was full-grown, so that its real age was probably much greater.

The question was asked one day, writes F. L. Johnson in "Power," "How much will it cost to keep the stable harness rooms warm this winter?" Some one's statement that one foot of uncovered 2-inch pipe would condense a dollar's worth of steam in a year was taken as a basis. It was decided that 25 feet of 2-inch pipe would do the heating, and that the heating would be required for thirteen weeks. This would be 325 foot weeks, which, divided by 52, gave 6.25 foot years, or $6.25, as the estimated cost of heating the rooms for one season. Fifty feet of 1-inch pipe were put in and a home-made trap devised which discharged condensation at 204°. A tub was placed under the drip from the trap, and at the end of one hour was found to have caught 60 pounds of water. Our evaporation is 10 pounds of water per pound of coal, so it took 6 pounds of coal per hour, or 1,008 pounds per week, to heat the rooms, 13×1,008= 13,104 pounds of coal for the season. The coal costs $3.25 per gross ton on the boiler room floor; 5.85 gross tons of coal at $3.25 makes $19.01, the amount it will cost to heat a room whose estimated cost of heating was $6.25. A dollar a year for heating one foot of uncovered 2-inch pipe is a very moderate estimate of its cost in most localities.

Foreign immigration is beginning to increase. There arrived in the United States during September 20,450 immigrants, as compared with 20,338 for September, 1896. For three months ending September 30 the arrivals this year were 49,296, as compared with 60,650 for the same quarter last year.

Shipments of Lake Superior iron ore up to November 1, are reported by the "Marine Review" at 11,270,283 tons, as against 9,093,207 tons for the corresponding period last year. November shipments are estimated at 500,000 tons, and this with rail shipments will bring the total up to 12,000,000 tons, the largest output ever known.

Baltimore is just now enjoying a large iron ore trade. The opening of the Sparrows Point steel works has created a large demand for the Cuban ore and cargoes are arriving at Baltimore almost daily. Ore is also reaching that city from Newfoundland. The Sparrows Point works are shipping steel rails to all parts of the world.

A new "hotel for poor men" was opened in New York on November 1, to compete with cheap lodging-houses of the poorer districts. There are nine stories and 1,560 bedrooms, each furnished with a white enamelled iron bed, and each light and airy. Baths are supplied to lodgers free of charge. Everything is to be scrupulously clean. The public rooms are wainscoted with white porcelain. There are spacious and splendidly lighted courts to serve as lounging places. There is also a reading-room, a billiard-room, and a restaurant, where meals will be supplied at small cost. The bedrooms will be let to men only at 20 cents a day, with no reduction for long stays. Mr. D. O. Mills, the California millionaire, is responsible for the undertaking. He expects the hotel certainly to pay expenses, and possibly to make a small profit.

A Parisian doctor has discovered that a solution of 1 part of picric acid to 75 parts of water will surely and speedily cure the most terrible burns and scalds, and recommends that barrels of the solution be kept in foundries, etc., in which workmen could be immersed. The pain is instantly removed, sores and blisters prevented, and a cure completed in four or five days.

From the Statistical Year Book for 1896, which has just been issued in a quarto-volume of over 500 pages, it appears that Germany has little to fear in British East India and Australia, from the denunciation of the commercial treaty. Her imports into those countries reached a total value of 270,000,000 marks, whereas her exports from them were worth only 78,000,000. The difference was less marked in the case of Great Britain herself. Germany bought goods from the United Kingdom to the value of 14,000,000 marks, and sold us wares to the value of 715,000,000. It is in Canada itself that German trade is most likely to suffer. The figures for 1896 show that Canada imported 15,000,000 marks from Germany, against exports to the value of 3,000,000 marks.

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THE WORLD OF THOUGHT:

ABOUT BOOKS AND THEIR AUTHORS

"Germany's Iron Chancellor"

Prominent among late publications as to literary merit and mechanical skill in production stands Dr. Garlepp's great work, "Germany's Iron Chancellor." It is a timely work, which, besides furnishing pleasing and entertaining reading, throws a searching light upon the condition of European affairs during the last fifty years, and especially upon that central figure which so firmly and unswervingly stood in the midst of all the political turmoil of that age as the promoter of peace and order, where heretofore chaos had reigned. Bismarck is still with us, and although it is no slight task to properly gauge and estimate the living illustrious men of a nation, the work under consideration is singularly happy in its accurate discernment of the merits and demerits of this, the greatest of all living heroes.

Bismarck's life, if scrutinized impartially, speaks for itself. The proper insight into his life, with the view of arriving at an unbiased judgment under such impartial scrutiny, is the aim of this volume. Its merit is that it presents Bismarck, during his long career of unusual activity, truthfully as statesman and man, without the attempt, in any way whatever, of either adding to or detracting from his merits, by deviating from facts, or by warping conception and judgment. Impartiality has been the watchword of the writer. The story of Bismarck, as told in these pages, impresses the mind of the impartial reader as a definite and truthful picture — certainly a gain, in view of all the vituperation, slander, and contradictions, uttered and printed, regarding this great man of action, thereby confusing the ideas and the judgment of the public who are in search of truth. It is the truth regarding this much-abused man which this work proclaims, and which enables the reader to see and fully understand the real character of one of the greatest men of our own days, whose unselfish life as a statesman incites to admiration, and as a man, to emulation.

But, furthermore, this volume lays claim to the additional merit of presenting, in a clear and succinct manner, certain political phases of modern times which, although yet in the memory of older persons, and frequently alluded to in our days, are little understood, and passed over because not understood. And yet these phases belong to the world's history, and the pages which contain them have been written in our own times. The reproach — it may be said here *en passant* — so often heard, especially regarding the educational aims in the United States, that the study of history in general is sadly neglected, must be admitted as well-founded. If so, every source which approvedly helps to shed new light in that direction, should and will be welcomed, especially if such sources treat tersely and intelligently — as does this volume — of historical matter which, whatever may be the reason, seems out of reach of the general public. Thus, for instance, the question about the cause of the Schleswig-Holstein war has been asked many times in the hearing of almost every one, and yet an accurate answer, in conformity with historical facts, is seldom had. Again, that great "Seven Weeks' War" of Prussia against Austria, in 1866, and the still greater war of Germany against France, in 1870-71, are historical events which crowd closely upon our present time, both wars having occurred since the close of the American Civil War. How many have an accurate idea of cause and effect of the two wars just mentioned, which meant so much not only to Germany, but to Europe also, and which brought about a change, favorable, on the whole, to the highest interests of mankind the world over?

In view, then, of accurate historical information — regarding the political situation in Europe in general, and in Germany in particular — of the significant epoch treated in these pages, this work must be accorded especial recognition. Nor is this all. Many points offer themselves, in reading these pages, which invite the attention of even the casual reader, while to the student of history such points become of absorbing interest.

The question, for instance, of State Sovereignty, so prominent in the United States in and after the days of the great rebellion, finds its counterpart in Germany, in the days of which this volume particularly treats. Nor is this question — although settled in both countries by force of happy circumstances — beyond discussion even now, and although the standpoint is a somewhat different one in the two countries named, the discriminating student of history finds here a field fruitful of thought, and inviting to comparison. Bismarck's views on State Sovereignty, as applied to the relation of the various German states to the German Empire, are of absorbing interest, and we feel that his exposition of the underlying principles is sound. The attentive reader is at once led to inquire in how far such principles apply to his own country, his own surroundings, which rest upon different political conditions. Such comparison,

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such research — instructive no less than pleasing — must necessarily accompany the reading of the volume here presented. In the same way, other points might be adduced from the pages of this work, which incite to thought and a closer study of maxims and truths, with which Bismarck's life and doings abound — all important, indeed, absolutely necessary for the safe conduct of man as well as the State, no matter what its form of government may be. Was ever the use and abuse of party-spirit set forth in clearer and truer words than those uttered by Bismarck on that subject? Have ever any utterances regarding civic virtues and the duties of citizenship been disseminated more manly, truer, and terser than those proclaimed by Bismarck? But space forbids the further enumeration of the advantages and the instruction to be derived from the perusal of this work, in its historical aspect.

The careful reader of "Germany's Iron Chancellor" will readily agree with the closing words of the Introduction: "It is evident that even those who are not Germans — nor, perhaps, even monarchists, as was demonstrated by Bismarck's best friend, the great American, John Lothrop Motley, will still be interested in so eventful a life which belongs to the world, will be inspired by the personal character of the great German which serves as a model to the world, and will be instructed by the lofty teachings and moral conception of duty, which run like a red thread through the record of his public career, and which, together with his singularly attractive family life, have claimed the homage of upright men in every country. All these will strongly appeal to the reader everywhere, into whose hands this fascinating narrative may fall."

C. F. KOLBE.

A Charming Book About Birds

To the bird-lover, whether amateur or professional, as well as to the student of natural history, hardly a more delightful book could be fallen in with than "Bird Neighbors," by Neltje Blanchan, with an introduction by John Burroughs (New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.). The work, which is embellished by over fifty superb colored plates, is designed to help one to "an introductory acquaintance with one hundred and fifty birds, commonly found in the gardens, meadows, and woods about our homes." The need is often felt for some such manual as the one before us, by those who have only "a bowing acquaintance" with the birds that "nest in our gardens or under the eaves of our houses, that haunt our wood-piles, keep our fruit-trees free from slugs, waken us with their song, or enliven our walks along the roadside or through the woods." The arrangement of the book is sensible, classifying the birds according to color, the characteristic generally first noticed, as well as by the season of the year when they make their appearance as strangers. The birds are also referred to by their local as well as by their generic names, and their family traits and chief characteristics are lucidly described. The book, which is inexpensive, considering its handsome appearance and the scope and richness of the illustrations, enables one to make a delightful excursion into the domain of ornithology, and its non-scientific yet faithful presentation of the subject will be found a charm by those whose bird enthusiasm is already, or remains yet to be, kindled. The book is a work of art, and its character is well vouched for by Mr. John Burroughs, to whom we already owe much for opening one's eyes to the delights of Nature.

An Entertaining Book on Korea

In "Korea and her Neighbors," by Isabella Bird Bishop (New York: Fleming H. Revell Co.), we have a new and interesting book, on what to most people must be a new and unknown country. The writer, who is a keen observer as well as adventurous traveller, is the well-known author of "Unbeaten Tracks in Japan," a work that had a great vogue on its appearing some fifteen years ago. The present volume, which is attractively illustrated, is the fruit of two years' travel in Korea, immediately after its conquest by Japan, and its narrative of excursions in and about the "Hermit Nation" is replete with social as well as historic and political interest. The author enjoyed unusual advantages in seeing what she has so delightfully described, in being honored with the friendship of the king and his late consort, through whom she had access to valuable sources of information, and had placed at her service numberless facts concerning the kingdom, its customs and affairs. Her presence in the country during the late war between China and Japan, of which, at the outset, Korea was the stage, gave Mrs. Bishop the opportunity to treat of many facts which have been little understood, and the accuracy of these, as related in the volume, is heartily vouched for by Sir W. C. Hillier, late British Consul-General for Korea, who has written a preface for the work.

The war, though it won for Korea a nominal independence, by the force of Japanese arms, is, we are told, not likely to do much for the country, owing to that bane of all Oriental nations — official corruption. And yet the people seem capable of better things, as we see in the Korean settlements in Russia; and were the country taken hold of by some civilized power

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and its affairs ably administered, much might be made of the nation and a large and profitable trade developed. There are good harbors in Fusan, Won-San, and Chemulpo, while the capital, Seoul, can be readily reached, either from Chemulpo, or by the Han river, which, by its two branches, waters large tracts of the country. A railroad from Chemulpo to the capital is being pushed rapidly forward, and through the medium of Japanese and Western teaching the people are now beginning perceptibly to rise in the social scale. National ascendancy in Korea seems now to lie between Russia and Japan, though trade, as is usual in many Eastern countries, is already in British hands. The missions, however, are largely American.

Dean Farrar's "Men I Have Known"

"Without being an abject hero-worshipper," writes the learned author of this entertaining volume on men he has known, "every man or woman of cultivated intelligence takes an interest in even seeing men of unquestioned greatness, the chief figures in the age in which they have lived. The famous and the supremely gifted are, after all, few in number. There are among us many inch-high distinctions and petty altitudes." It has been Dean Farrar's privilege, as it no doubt has been his happiness, to know many in his time who, in various ways, have possessed great talent, high scholarship, profound learning, and, in not a few instances, remarkable genius. It is of these — men of letters, divines, scientists, among whom are a goodly number of Americans — that the learned Dean writes; and though the matter is somewhat sketchy and to a large extent personal, there is much that is of high and peculiar interest. The value of the volume is increased by the many fine portraits and *facsimile* letters which are interspersed through the work. Among the reminiscent sketches are those on Tennyson, Browning, Matthew Arnold, Carlyle, Maurice, Dean Stanley, Darwin, Huxley, Whittier, Holmes, Phillips Brooks, and a number of English divines and churchmen, including archbishops, bishops, and deans. The volume will make an acceptable present for the season and be found attractive to the cultivated reader. (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., N. Y., publishers.)

A Pretty Gift Book of Society Verse

In the bijou volume of verses, entitled "Taken from Life," we have much of the gay troubadour spirit which characterizes the *vers de société* of C.S. Calverley, Mackworth Praed, Thackeray in his "Ballads," and the recent writers of drawing-room poetry, of whom Edmund Gosse and Austin Dobson are types. Oliver Wendell Holmes is perhaps the best known of our own writers of this species of elegant verse, the chief quality of which is a light wit, coupled with a dainty touch and high finish in construction. The original models, it is well known, are French, which enshrine much gay thought, couched in graceful lines, as we see in the rondel, triolet, ballade, and villanelle. It is a style of verse which is apt to tire by its affectation and frequent strained conceits, though much of it, in the verse of its best exponents, pleases by its charm, joyousness, and grace. The present volume (Doubleday and McClure Co., publishers, New York) invites by the artistic daintiness of its manufacture, and pleases by its many tuneful society ditties. As an example of the verse, not by any means the best, we extract the following as being suitable to the season: —

WHEN NELLY HANGS HER STOCKING UP.

"The sun deserts his flaming car,
Night ends the winter's day;
Each moon-kissed snowflake seems a star
In earth's white Milky Way.

"The lights go out about the town,
Mid crash and clang of locking up,
And someone wears a snowy gown
When Nelly hangs her stocking up.

"I rarely pine for earthly dross,
'Tis just my simple way,
But being poor's the cruel cross
I bear each Christmas day.

"As chiming bells betray its birth
I drain the dregs in sorrow's cup,
And, sighing, wish I owned the earth
When Nelly hangs her stocking up."

"Hours with the Ghosts"

This little manual, with its rather clap-trap title, comes to us professedly as an exposé of spiritualism and theosophy, though it appears to be tender towards both. It is true it lifts the curtain from the exhibitions and so-called manifestations of pretended mediums and charlatans, who delude the credulous with their mummery, and impose upon the senses by sleight of hand and mere trickery. But the author, nevertheless, is kind to occultism, and says explicitly that "in the vanguard of the new order of things are spiritualism and theosophy." Though tinctured with superstition, both, he affirms, contain germs of truth, and his work aims at sifting the wheat from the chaff. In his investigations we are treated to an explanation of materializations, spirit-photography, slate-writing, and other vulgar pretensions, and above all to a lengthy biography of that arch-humbug, the late Mme. Blavatsky, whom occultists delighted to honor as "the high-priestess of theosophy." Of her propaganda, the author says some tart things, and speaks of her "Isis Unveiled" as "a hodge-podge of absurdities"; yet he is courteous to many of her extravagant admirers and hospitable to much of the bathos written in her honor. [Laird & Lee, Chicago.]

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EDUCATIONAL STUDIES FOR YOUTH:

COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH SPEECH AND WRITING

IN the renewing of subscriptions to SELF CULTURE for the new year, many friends of the magazine have taken the opportunity to commend the production in warm terms, to express interest in its varied departments, and to acknowledge indebtedness for no little instruction and counsel received during the year which has now closed. In many quarters hearty interest has been expressed in the "Educational Studies for Youth," and especially in the series of papers dealing with improprieties in the use of words. Acknowledgment has also been freely made of the aid afforded to the correct writing and speaking of our mother tongue by the lists furnished from time to time of "Synonyms Discriminated." These important studies we design for a time to continue, believing them of much practical value, and not only to the young, but to those, of whatever age, who would avoid common pitfalls in current speech, and who transgress, often unwittingly, the rules of good grammar.

No person, it may be said, of even moderate culture, with an ear for correct English, who mixes with his kind, and listens to the speech, not of the street only, but of the office, the factory, and the home, can fail to be appalled by the slovenly English spoken, and the violations of grammar as well as of taste in the daily speech of the people. Even more astounding evidence of defective education is exhibited in correspondence, and this not only in the ordinary business letter, but in the presumedly studied essay and type-written contribution to the press. So prevalent is the defective education and habit of careless writing and speaking, that all who appreciate the beauty and value the purity of our mother tongue must be gravely concerned at its deterioration in the common talk and written speech of the people, and incited to do something, each in his own sphere, to counteract it. It is, perhaps, little that an educational department in a popular magazine can do to stay the evil; but that little it is called upon to do; and, perhaps, it can best be done by some such series of correctives as we have already opened our pages to, in the way of hints, to the correct writing and speaking of good English. These hints we purpose now and for a while to continue.

G. M. A.

HOW TO SPEAK CORRECTLY *

There are many kinds of errors in writing and speaking. The most objectionable are those in which words are employed that are unsuitable to convey the meaning intended. Thus, a person wishing to express his intention of going to a given place says, "I *propose* going," when, in fact, he *purposes* going. Other errors arise from the substitution of sounds similar to the words that should be employed; that is, spurious words instead of genuine ones. Thus, some people say *renumerative* when they mean *remunerative*.

Other errors are occasioned by imperfect knowledge of the English grammar; thus, many people say: "Between you and I," instead of "Between you and *me*." And there are numerous other departures from the rules of grammar, which will be pointed out hereafter.

MISUSE OF THE ADJECTIVE: "What *beautiful* butter!" "What a *nice* landscape!" are often heard, when if the proprieties of speech are regarded, we should rather say: "What a *beautiful landscape!*" "What *nice butter!*" Again errors are frequently occasioned by the following causes:—

MISPRONUNCIATION OF WORDS: Many persons say pro*noun*ciation instead of pro*nun*ciation; others say pro-nun-she-a-shun, instead of pro-nun-ce-a-shun.

MISDIVISION OF WORDS AND SYLLABLES: This defect makes the words *an ambassador* sound like *a nambassador*, or *an adder* like *a nadder*.

IMPERFECT ENUNCIATION, as when a person says *hebben* for *heaven*, *ebber* for *ever*, *jocholate* for *chocolate*.

To correct these errors by a systematic course of study would involve a closer application than most persons can afford, but the simple and concise rules and hints here given, founded upon usage and the authority of scholars, will be found of assistance.

Who and *whom* are used in relation to persons, and *which* in relation to things. But it was once common to say, "the man *which*."

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*Abridged and adapted from "Manual of Useful Information." 480 pages, 12mo. Cloth (price $1.50). THE WERNER COMPANY, Publishers, Akron, Ohio.

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This should now be avoided. It is now usual to say, "Our Father *who* art in heaven;" instead of "*which* art in heaven."

Whose is, however, sometimes applied to things as well as persons. We may, therefore, say, "The country *whose* inhabitants are free."

Thou is employed in solemn discourse and *you* in common language. *Ye* (plural) is also used in serious addresses, and *you* in familiar language.

The uses of the word *it* are various, and very perplexing to the uneducated. It is not only used to imply persons, but things, and even ideas, and, therefore, in speaking or writing, its assistance is constantly required. The perplexity respecting this word arises from the fact that in using it in the construction of a long sentence, sufficient care is not taken to insure that when *it* is employed it really points out or refers to the object intended. For instance, "It was raining when John set out in his cart to go to market, and he was delayed so long that it was over before he arrived." Now what is to be understood by this sentence? Was the rain over? or the market? Either or both might be inferred from the construction of the sentence, which, therefore, should be written thus: "It was raining when John set out in his cart to go to market, and he was delayed so long that the latter was over before he arrived."

Rule.— After writing a sentence always look through it, and see that wherever the word *it* is employed, it refers to or carries the mind back with certainty to the object which it is intended to point out.

The general distinction between *this* and *that* may be thus defined: *this* denotes an object present or near, in time or place; *that* something which is absent.

These refers, in the same manner, to present objects, while *those* refers to things that are remote.

Who changes, under certain conditions, into *whose* and *whom*; but *that* and *which* always remain the same, with the exception of the possessive case, as noted above.

That may be applied to nouns or subjects of all sorts; as the *girl that* went to school, the *dog that* bit me, the *opinion that* he entertains.

The misuse of these pronouns gives rise to more errors in speaking and writing than any other cause.

When you wish to distinguish between two or more persons, say "*Which* is the happy man?" not *who*—"*Which* of those ladies do you admire?"

Instead of "*Whom* do you think him to be?" say "*Who* do you think him to be?"

Whom should I see? To *whom* do you speak? *Who* said so? *Who* gave it to you? Of *whom* did you procure them? *Who* was he? *Who* do men say that *I* am?

Self should never be added to *his*, *their*, *mine*, or *thine*. *Each* is used to denote *every* individual of a number. *Every* denotes *all* the individuals of a number.

Either and *or* denote an alternative: "I will take *either* road, at your pleasure," "I will take this *or* that."

Neither means *not either;* and *nor* means *not the other*.

Either is sometimes used for *each*—"Two thieves were crucified, on *either* side one."

"Let *each* esteem others as good as themselves," should be, "Let *each* esteem others as good as *himself*."

"There are bodies *each* of which *are* so small," should be, "each of which *is* so small."

Do not use double superlatives, such as *most straightest*, *most highest*, *most best*.

The term *worser* has gone out of use; but *lesser* is still retained.

The use of such words as *chiefest*, *extremest*, *etc.*, has become obsolete, because they do not give any superior force to the meanings of the primary words, *chief*, *extreme*, *etc.*

Such expressions as *more impossible*, *more indispensable*, *more universal*, *more uncontrollable*, *more unlimited*, etc., are objectionable, as they really enfeeble the meaning which it is the object of the speaker or writer to strengthen. For instance, *impossible* gains no strength by rendering it *more* impossible. This class of error is common with persons who say, "A *great large* house," "A *great big* animal," "A *small little* foot," "A *tiny little* hand."

Hence, *whence*, and *thence*, denoting departure, etc., may be used without the word *from*. The idea of *from* is included in the word *whence*—therefore it is unnecessary to say, "*from* whence."

Hither, *thither*, and *whither*, denoting to a place, have generally been superseded by *here*, *there*, and *where*. But there is no good reason why they should not be employed. If, however, they are used, it is unnecessary to add the word *to* because that is implied—"*Whither* are you going?" "*Where* are you going?" Each of these sentences is complete.

Two *negatives* destroy each other, and produce an affirmative. "*Nor* did he *not* observe them," conveys the idea that he *did* observe them.

But negative assertions are allowable. As "his manners are not impolite," which implies that his manners are in some degree marked by politeness.

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In the following hints, many of the examples we design to correct are obvious vulgarisms. While admitting the fact, it must be said that they are but too common in the colloquial speech of the people, and there is, therefore, need of the corrective to be applied.

Instead of "Let you and *I*," say "Let you and me."

Instead of "I am not so tall as *him*," say "I am not so tall as he."

When asked "Who is there?" do not answer "*Me*," but "I."

Instead of "For you and *I*," say "For you and me."

Instead of "You are taller than *me*," say "You are taller than I."

Instead of "I *ain't*," or "I *arn't*," say "I am not," or "I'm not."

Instead of "Whether I be present or no," say "Whether I be present or not."

For "Not that I know on," say "Not that I know."

Instead of "*Was* I to do so," say "Were I to do so."

Instead of "I would do the same if I *was him*," say "I would do the same if I were he."

Though "I *had as lief* go myself," is not incorrect, some prefer "I would as soon go myself," or "I would rather go myself."

It is better to say "Six weeks ago," than "Six weeks back."

It is better to say "Since which time," than "Since when."

It is better to say "I repeated it," than "I said so over again."

Instead of "He was too young to *have* suffered much," say "He was too young to suffer much."

Instead of "*Less* friends," say "Fewer friends." Less refers to quantity.

Instead of "A *quantity* of people," say "A number of people."

Instead of "*As* far as I can see," say "So far as I can see."

Instead of "A *new pair* of gloves," say "A pair of new gloves."

Instead of "I hope you'll think nothing *on* it," say "I hope you'll think nothing of it."

Instead of "Restore it *back* to me," say "Restore it to me."

Instead of "I suspect the *veracity* of his story," say "I doubt the truth of his story."

Instead of "I seldom *or ever* see him," say "I seldom see him."

Instead of "I expected *to have* found him," say "I expected to find him."

Instead of "Who *learns* you music?" say "Who teaches you music?"

Instead of "I *never* sing *whenever* I can help it," say "I never sing when I can help it."

Instead of saying "The *observation* of the rule," say "The observance of the rule."

Instead of "Here *lays* his honored head," say "Here lies his honored head."

Instead of "He died from *negligence*," say "He died through neglect," or "in consequence of neglect."

Instead of "Apples are plenty," say "Apples are plentiful."

Instead of "The *latter end* of the year," say "The end, or the close of the year."

Instead of "The *then* government," say "The government of that age, or century, or year, or time."

Instead of "They are *united together* in the bonds of matrimony," say "They are united in matrimony," or "They are married."

Instead of "We travel *slow*," say "We travel slowly."

Instead of "He plunged *down* into the river," say "He plunged into the river."

Instead of "He jumped *from off of* the scaffolding," say "He jumped off the scaffolding."

Instead of "*universal*," with reference to things that have any limit, say "general"; "generally approved," instead of "universally approved"; "generally beloved," instead of "universally beloved."

Instead of "They ruined *one another*," say "They ruined each other."

Instead of "If *in case* I succeed," say "If I succeed."

Instead of "A *large enough* room," say "A room large enough."

Instead of "I am slight in comparison *to* you," say "I am slight in comparison with you."

Instead of "I went *for* to see him," say "I went to see him."

Instead of "The cake is all *eat up*," say "The cake is all eaten."

Instead of "The book fell *on* the floor," say "The book fell to the floor."

Instead of "His opinions are *approved of* by all," say "His opinions are approved by all."

Instead of "I will add *one more* argument," say "I will add one argument more," or "another argument."

Say "The first two," and "the last two," instead of "the two first," "the two last."

Instead of "*Except* I am prevented," say "Unless I am prevented."

Instead of "Give me *them* papers," say "Give me those papers."

Instead of "*Those* papers I hold in my hand," say "These papers I hold in my hand."

Instead of "I could scarcely imagine but *what*," say "I could scarcely imagine but that."

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Instead of "He was a man *notorious* for his benevolence," say "He was noted for his benevolence."

Instead of "She was a woman *celebrated* for her crimes," say "She was notorious on account of her crimes."

Instead of "What may your name be?" say "What is your name?"

Instead of "I lifted it *up*," say "I lifted it."

Instead of "It is *equally of the same* value," say "It is of the same value," or "equal value."

Instead of "I knew it *previous* to your telling me," say "I knew it previously to your telling me."

Instead of "You *was* out when I called," say "You were out when I called."

Instead of "I thought I should *have won* this game," say "I thought I should win this game."

Instead of "*This* much is certain," say "Thus much is certain," or "So much is certain."

Instead of "Put your watch *in* your pocket," say "Put your watch into your pocket."

Instead of "Will you *set* down?" say "Will you sit down?"

Instead of "I cannot do it without *farther* means," say "I cannot do it without further means."

Instead of "No sooner *but*," or "No other *but*," say "than."

Instead of "*Nobody else* but her," say "Nobody but her."

Instead of "He fell *down* from the balloon," say "He fell from the balloon."

Instead of "He rose *up* from the ground," say "He rose from the ground."

Instead of "*These* kind of oranges *are* not good," say "This kind of orange is not good."

Instead of "Somehow or *another*," say "Somehow or other."

Instead of "*Will* I give you some more tea?" say "Shall I give you some more tea?"

Instead of "To be *given away gratis*," say "To be given away."

Instead of "Will you enter in?" say "Will you enter?"

Instead of "*This* three days or more," say "These three days or more."

Instead of "He is a bad *grammarian*," say "He is not a grammarian."

Instead of "We *accuse him for*," say "We accuse him of."

Instead of "We *acquit* him *from*," say "We acquit him of."

Instead of "I am averse *from* that," say "I am averse to that."

Instead of "I confide *on* you," say "I confide in you."

Instead of "As soon *as ever*," say "As soon as."

Instead of "The *very best*," or "The *very worst*," say "The best, or the worst."

Avoid such phrases as "No great shakes," "Nothing to boast of," "Down in my boots," "Suffering from the blues." All such sentences indicate vulgarity.

Instead of "No one *hasn't* called," say "No one has called."

Instead of "You have a *right* to pay me," say "It is right that you should pay me."

Instead of "I am going *over* the bridge," say "I am going across the bridge."

Instead of "I *should just* think I could," say "I think I can."

Instead of "There has been a *good deal*," say "There has been much."

Instead of saying "The effort you are making *for* meeting the bill," say "The effort you are making to meet the bill."

To say "Do *not* give him *no more* of your money," is equivalent to saying "Give him some of your money." Say "Do not give him *any* of your money."

Instead of "The quality of the apples *were* good," say "The quality of the apples was good."

Instead of "The want of learning, courage, and energy *are* more visible," say "Is more visible."

Instead of "We die *for* want," say "We die of want."

Instead of "He died *by* fever," say "He died of fever."

Instead of "I *enjoy* bad health," say "My health is not good."

Instead of "*Either* of the three," say "Any one of the three."

Instead of "Better *nor* that," say "Better than that."

Instead of "This town is not *as* large as we thought," say "This town is not so large as we thought."

Instead of "*Because* why?" say "Why?"

Instead of "That *there* boy," say "That boy."

Instead of "That horse is not *much worth*," say "The horse is not worth much."

Instead of "The *subject-matter* of debate," say "The subject of debate."

Instead of saying "When he *was* come back," say "When he had come back."

Instead of saying "His health had been *shook*," say "His health had been shaken."

Instead of "It was *spoke* in my presence," say "It was spoken in my presence."

Instead of "*Very* right," or "*Very* wrong," say "Right," or "Wrong."

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THE SCIENCE OF FAMILIAR THINGS:

LESSONS FROM PHYSIOLOGY*

THE BLOOD AND ITS WORK

Work and Waste

THE body is a sort of living machine. Some part or other of it is always at work, night and day, sleeping and waking. Think of a person asleep. What work is going on in his body even while he sleeps?

Lead the pupil to see that the brain, heart, and lungs are never at rest.

All bodily work is done at the expense of the substance of the body itself. Every act of our daily life, the movement even of a little finger, the flashing of a single thought through the brain, or the blinking of an eyelid, destroys some of the substance of the body.

Think of a steam-engine at work. It is the fuel in its furnace and the water in its boiler that enable it to peform its work; BUT THE LIVING MACHINE WORKS AT THE EXPENSE OF ITS OWN SUBSTANCE.

Each little particle of brain, nerve, muscle, skin, having once performed a certain work, becomes henceforth worn-out, dead matter. OUR BODY LIVES BY DYING. Some part of the body is dying every moment.

The Blood

Lead the pupil to tell that, notwithstanding this constant destruction of the substance of the body, a person in good health varies very little in size and weight for years. Boys and girls, in fact, are daily growing bigger.

The reason for this is that all over the body there is not only waste, but renewal going on. Bit by bit, every part of the body — muscle, brain, bone — is not only being destroyed by work done, but as it is destroyed it is renewed or BUILT UP AGAIN in its original form.

What do you think does this building-up work? The blood.

If I prick myself in any part of my body, blood will flow out. There is blood all over the body. It is this BLOOD WHICH BUILDS UP WHAT HAS BEEN WORN OUT. It carries all the materials for building the various tissues.

To the muscles it gives certain particular materials for making muscle; to the bones it gives up other materials for making bone; in the brain and nerves it leaves other materials again for making nerve-matter, and so on. But it never leaves bone-making materials for building up muscle, brain, or nerve; nor does it take to the ear what is wanted for the eye. It never makes mistakes.

The Blood Circulates

We know that there is blood all over the body. But this blood does not stand in the body as water stands in a bottle; neither is it still and stagnant.

It is a restless stream, INCESSANTLY ON THE MOVE, bringing to every part the materials required for building purposes, and carrying away whatever is no longer wanted there.

Lead the pupil to tell what would happen if this stream were to cease to flow. The body would suffer in two ways: It would become choked up with the accumulation of waste matter, and at the same time it would be starved for want of new material.

Therefore, as long as life lasts, THIS STREAM OF THE BLOOD MUST FLOW ON.

We say that the blood CIRCULATES. We mean to say by this that it does not merely pass through the body like a stream and disappear, but is carried round and round, over and over again.

Explain from the derivation of the word that it signifies "a going round and round, again." Show how well the term applies to this flowing stream of the blood.

The circulatory movement may be aptly illustrated by referring to the hot-water pipes of a building. The same water is continually on the move, round and round, through the whole system of pipes.

This leads us to the fact that the blood too CIRCULATES THROUGH A SYSTEM OF PIPES. These pipes commence at the heart, and form a complete circuit through the body and back to the heart again, penetrating into every part of the body, except the nails, the hair, and the hard enamel of the teeth.

Our hair and nails do not bleed when we cut them.

These pipes have the one common name of BLOOD-VESSELS, although they are not all alike either in structure or the work they have to do. The heart is the centre of the circulation.

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Show the position of the heart in the body. Have a good wall-sheet of the circulation also ready to hand.

Those blood-vessels through which blood flows FROM THE HEART to other parts of the body are termed ARTERIES.

Those which bring blood back again TO THE HEART are VEINS.

Tell that both arteries and veins branch out continually into smaller and smaller vessels the farther they get from the heart.

Between the smallest branches of the arteries and veins are multitudes of extremely fine tubes, like the most delicate hollow hairs. These are called CAPILLARIES. We have already learned that the word "capillary" comes from a word that means "a hair."

This constant stream of the blood then flows, from the heart, along the ARTERIES, into every part of the body. The arteries are continually splitting up into smaller and smaller branching tubes, until at last they become the merest hair-like vessels, the CAPILLARIES.

The blood continues to flow through these capillaries, and is collected up, as it flows, by the smallest branches of the VEINS.

The veins gradually unite into larger and larger pipes, as they get nearer the heart, and at last discharge the blood which they carry into the heart itself.

From what we have already said about THE HEART, you will be prepared to learn that it is a hollow vessel. You have all, I suppose, seen a sheep's heart. I will show you one in the next lesson.

It will be sufficient for us now to remember that the heart does the work of a pump. It is constantly at work pumping blood into the arteries. From the first dawn of life till death takes us, the heart never rests for a single minute from its pumping.

Illustrate roughly, by a hollow india-rubber ball, the mode of pumping or forcing the blood along. Fill the ball with water, and then squeeze it with a succession of regular jerks, and show how the water gushes out.

THE CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD

Commence by making the class recapitulate briefly the subject of last lesson.

The Veins The veins are the vessels which convey the blood back to the heart. We will begin with these because we know something of them already. They are the vessels which are to be seen just beneath the skin.

Point out the dark purplish cords. Trace them upwards from the hand, and show how they gradually unite into larger and larger trunks.

Compare them to a river and its tributaries, each little runlet bringing its contribution to swell the main stream.

In all these vessels the blood is perpetually flowing in one direction — from the smaller into the larger trunks, and so on to the heart.

We cannot see the blood flowing along our veins, but the fact may be clearly shown, with the aid of a microscope, in the transparent web between the toes of a frog.

The veins, as seen just beneath the skin, have A DARK PURPLE COLOR. The blood which is coursing along them towards the heart is not bright red blood, such as we usually see, but PURPLE — ALMOST BLACK. It is, in fact, loaded with impurities.

How did these things find their way into the blood?

Tell that they are the waste dead matter — the worn-out particles of muscle, nerve, brain, bone, etc., which the blood in its course has caught up and carried away.

These waste matters could not be allowed to remain in the body. They would be very injurious. They have changed both the character and appearance of the blood. It was bright red blood before; now it is dark purple and impure.

Compare them with a heap of rotting, putrefying refuse matter, and tell of the mischief it would cause.

It is the duty of the veins TO COLLECT UP all this impure blood, and PASS IT ALONG through larger and larger trunks, and finally TO DISCHARGE IT INTO THE HEART.

Tie a cord tightly round the finger, and note that the finger soon becomes swollen and purple.

Why is this? The veins leading upwards from the finger lie near the surface of the skin, and have been closed by the pressure of the cord. The consequence is that the blood cannot flow through them, and so onward towards the arm, but remains where it is, giving the vessels a swollen or congested appearance.

The Arteries These vessels carry blood from the heart into all parts of the body. Their great main trunk, which springs direct from the heart, is a pipe rather larger than one's thumb. This sends off branch after branch, each branch dividing again and again into smaller and smaller ones still, till they are as fine as the finest veins.

But the blood which passes along this channel, and so on to the smallest arteries, is good blood, free from impurities, and loaded with materials for renewing those parts of the body which have been worn out. IT IS A BRIGHT RED COLOR.

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Illustrate by reference to the water-supply of a large town — the pumping station with its great main, the pipes running from this under the roadways, the smaller branching pipes under the streets, and finally the delivery pipes in connection with the individual houses. The pipes bring pure, wholesome water to the houses. This water, after performing its office, finds its way, contaminated with filth and all sorts of impurities, to the drain. The drains from the various houses run into larger pipes, and these into still larger, until the great main sewers are reached, and these carry the stream far away from the town, and empty it into the sea — the great purifier. Evaporation carries the pure water-vapor upwards to form clouds; condensation of the clouds deposits it again on the earth as rain; the rain forms springs and rivers, which again supply the water company's mains — and so the circulation is complete.

Compare arteries, capillaries, veins, lungs, and heart.

The arteries are usually deeply embedded in the flesh, and cannot be seen; and this is not a mere accident, but a wise provision against injury.

If a vein is cut or injured, it is comparatively EASY TO CLOSE UP THE WOUND AND STOP THE BLEEDING; but this cannot be done so easily with an artery, and the person is in extreme danger of bleeding to death. Hence the wisdom of packing away the arteries deep in the flesh.

If an artery were removed from the body of any animal and examined, it would be found to be a plain, simple pipe, through which water might be poured from either end.

If a vein were removed, however, and treated similarly, we should find it easy enough to pour water through from one end, but when we tried to do so from the opposite end, the PIPE WOULD BECOME CLOSED OR STOPPED UP in some way.

By cutting the two pipes open we should discover the reason for the stoppage. The veins every here and there are provided with LITTLE BAGS OR POUCHES OF SKIN, which stretch across the vessel and have their mouths or openings ALL TURNED ONE WAY, *i.e.*, towards the heart.

Draw on the blackboard a sketch of the vein cut open, with its little pouches or bags seen.

Tell that these bags form VALVES. *Ask the class to tell the object of valves, and how they act. Refer to the valves in pumps, and show that whatever the construction, the purpose is always the same.*

In the veins THE VALVES allow the blood to flow past them on its way to the heart; but should it, from any cause, attempt to flow backwards, it would fill the little pockets and swell them out till they blocked up the way altogether. There are no valves in the arteries.

The Capillaries In every part of the body there must be these two sets of vessels — ARTERIES TO BRING FRESH PURE BLOOD; VEINS TO CARRY IT BACK TO THE HEART CONTAMINATED WITH IMPURITIES. Every artery ends and every vein commences in a network of smaller hair-like capillaries. So close are these tiny vessels placed, that it is impossible to prick the skin anywhere without piercing the walls of some of them and causing the blood to flow.

The walls of the arteries are STOUT AND MUSCULAR; those of the veins are THINNER AND SOMEWHAT FLABBY; but the capillaries have the THINNEST OF THIN WALLS — they are extremely thin and delicate.

The complete round of the circulation from the heart, along the arteries, through the capillaries, and back by the veins to the heart again, is accomplished in about half a minute.

THE HEART

Introduce the new lesson by calling upon the class to tell all they know of the blood and its work, and of the way in which it circulates through the body. We have said that the centre or mainspring of this circulation is the heart. We are now going to learn something about this important organ.

Situation The heart is situated in the middle of the thorax or chest, between the two lungs, and in a slanting position. [*Show a sheep's heart.*] It is pear-shaped, and has its broad end or base turned upwards and backwards towards the spine, and its pointed end or apex turned downwards, forwards, and to the left.

Explain that between the fifth and sixth ribs, and on the left side of the chest, one may feel with the hand a certain movement which we commonly call the beating of the heart. This is caused by the apex of the heart striking on the front wall of the chest at this point. Hence the common mistake of supposing the heart to be at the left side of the chest.

Description of the Heart The heart is a hollow organ, made entirely of muscle. It is about the size of one's closed fist. It contains two great chambers, completely separated from each other by an immovable wall or partition of muscle, which reaches from the base to the apex.

Each of these great chambers is further subdivided by another partition, stretching crosswise. Thus the heart really contains four chambers of the same size — two upper and two lower.

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The upper chambers are called the RIGHT AND LEFT AURICLES; the lower, the RIGHT AND LEFT VENTRICLES.

THE HEART IS REALLY A DOUBLE ORGAN, CONSISTING OF TWO COMPLETE HEARTS.

There is a passage between the upper and lower chamber on each side so that whatever is in the auricle can pass through into the ventricle below; but there is no direct communication between the right and left sides of the heart.

Make a diagram on the blackboard showing these four chambers of the heart.

Lead the pupil to explain what is meant by the working of a muscle—a muscle works by contracting, and directly the contraction is over it springs back to its original size.

The Heart a Muscular Organ

The muscles of which the heart is formed always work in one particular way. THE AURICLES AND VENTRICLES ARE NEVER AT WORK TOGETHER.

Both auricles begin to contract at the same moment, but this is only the signal for the ventricles to cease working; and when the ventricles in their turn begin to contract, the auricles cease work.

In this way, at the very moment when the two ventricles are contracted to their smallest size, the two auricles are expanded or stretched out to their fullest extent. When the auricles take their turn to work (or contract), the ventricles, in like manner, expand to their fullest size.

Your heart has never ceased to work in this way since you were born, and never will cease till you die.

It is by this alternate contraction of auricles and ventricles that the heart does its pumping. Every time the AURICLES contract, they force the blood that is in them through the passage in their floor into the ventricles below.

Illustrate again with the hollow india-rubber ball and some water.

The blood once in the ventricles must not be allowed to flow back into the auricles again.

Can you think of any way of preventing it? A valve would prevent it from flowing back.

There is a valve in the passage which leads from the auricle to the ventricle on each side of the heart.

Let the pupil tell again the general purpose of a valve. It will not be necessary to enter too deeply into the structure of these. See that it is clearly understood that these valves open downward into the ventricles.

When the auricles contract, the way through the passage lies open, and the blood passes from the auricles into the ventricles, and fills them.

When the ventricles in their turn contract, these valves close together and block up the way, so that the blood cannot return into the auricles again.

OXIDATION

Commence the new lesson by leading the class to tell all they know of the connection between work and waste in the body. Wherever work is going on there must be waste, and the waste matter must not be allowed to accumulate. It would poison the whole system.

Arterial and Venous Blood

We have learned that these waste, poisonous matters are removed by the blood. But how are they removed? This is what we have next to learn.

Call upon the pupils to tell (as far as they know at present) the difference between arterial and venous blood.

The dark purple blood in the veins was less than a minute before flowing through the arteries as bright red arterial blood. The blood sent out of the right ventricle of the heart to the lungs by the pulmonary artery is THE SAME DARK PURPLE FLUID. It is purple because it is loaded with impurities which it has taken up in its course through the body.

How does that same blood return to the heart again? It is brought back to the left auricle of the heart by the pulmonary veins—BRIGHT RED ARTERIAL BLOOD. It has been cleansed from its impurities while passing through the lungs. But it has not only given up its poisonous impurities, it has taken in something in the lungs which is very necessary to our existence.

THE PULMONARY VEINS ARE THE ONLY VEINS CONTAINING PURE BLOOD, WHILST THE PULMONARY ARTERY IS THE ONLY ONE CONTAINING IMPURE BLOOD.

Lead the class to talk next of the composition of the air. Make them tell that oxygen forms one-fifth of the bulk of all the air around us, and that the chief property of this gas is its power of burning or oxidizing other substances.

Oxygen, the Burner

Suppose I placed a piece of burning candle in a jar of oxygen, what would happen? It would burn rapidly with a very brilliant glow.

How long would it burn? Till all the oxygen was consumed.

And what would become of the substance of the candle itself? It would disappear.

How does it disappear? The oxygen burns the carbon and hydrogen, of which the candle is made, and converts these into the form of gas—carbonic acid and water vapor.

The smoke which rises up the chimney is very

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different in appearance from the lump of coal burning in the grate, yet it contains all the substance of the coal itself, converted into another form by the oxygen of the air.

BURNING IS MERELY A CHANGE — NOTHING IS LOST — THERE IS NO DESTRUCTION.

How the Waste is Removed Now let us see what all this has to do with getting rid of waste matters from the body.

The solid particles of brain, muscle, or other tissue, although they have by their work become worn-out and waste matter, cannot be carried away out of the body in that state. They must undergo a complete change into new and totally different substances. This change is brought about by the gas oxygen.

Throughout life the work of breathing never ceases. This work is twofold. We EXHALE, or send out; and we INHALE, or breathe in.

That which we inhale is pure air, and one-fifth of it is the gas oxygen. The oxygen thus taken in as we breathe is absorbed into the blood in the lungs, and carried into all parts of the body.

Wherever the oxygen meets with tissues which have been used up or worn-out by their work, it seizes upon them, and A SLOW BURNING OR COMBUSTION at once commences.

The harder we work the faster our tissues are destroyed, and the quicker must we breathe in order to take in oxygen to burn them up. This constant burning up of the waste matters by oxygen in all parts of the body keeps us warm.

When we are in bad health, and the blood does not circulate freely, we are always cold. There is not enough oxygen sent through the body at such times to do the necessary work of burning or oxidizing the waste matters.

Be careful to convey a clear idea of this burning in the body. The various substances burning in the oxygen have left the impression of a brilliant flame and intense heat, and ordinary observation associates blaze and smoke with all burning. The oxidation which goes on in the body is quite distinct from all this.

The best way to illustrate it is by referring to a gardener's hot-bed. Show that in this case the heat is caused by slow oxidation of the heap of leaves or manure.

Products of the Burning What happens when we have been undergoing some unusual exercise? We breathe more rapidly; the heart beats at a quicker rate; and we feel the blood coursing through the body.

Why is this? More of the tissues than usual have been used up and become waste matter, and more oxygen must be taken in and carried to them by the blood to burn them up. The increased burning makes us feel warmer after exercise.

What do you notice about the skin at such a time? It is covered with moisture. Moisture oozes out from the skin — we sweat or perspire.

Breathe on a slate or some polished surface. Show that our breath contains moisture too.

What do you think this water is?

Tell that the water is one of the products of the burning up of the tissues.

Lead the class to tell of the composition of water. Water is always formed when hydrogen burns. Hence we learn that hydrogen is one of the materials of which our bodies are made.

Let one of the class breathe through a piece of tube into a glass of lime-water.

Show the gradual change that takes place, and make the class explain that the change is due to the presence of carbonic acid in the breath.

Make them tell the composition of this gas, and lead up to the fact that carbon enters largely into the constituent materials of the body.

These two substances — carbonic acid and water — are being constantly formed by the burning up of the carbon and hydrogen in the body. There are other products of the burning — one in particular, ammonia; but carbonic acid and water are the chief.

The blood, as it courses through the body, absorbs these products of the burning, and they change its character from a life-giving to a poisonous stream. It becomes dark purple in color, and is carried in this state by the veins back to the heart and so on into the lungs. There it gives off carbonic acid and water, and takes in pure oxygen in their place. It is this exchange which reconverts the venous into arterial life-giving blood once more.

An English journal recently gave an interesting account of a great canal, one thousand and eighty miles long, between the Baltic and the Black Sea which is to be begun next spring, as the surveys are nearly finished. The new waterway is to be 217 feet wide at the top, and 117 feet at the bottom, with a depth of 28½ feet, which will enable the largest water-vessels to pass through. The canal begins at Riga, and follows the course of the river Duna as far as Dünaburg. Here the great excavations will begin which will cross the watershed and connect the canal with Lepel on the Beresina. That river will be utilized as far as its junction with the Dnieper, when the latter will be followed to its mouth. Of the total length of the canal eight hundred and seventy-five miles will be canalized rivers, leaving only one hundred and twenty-five miles to be dug. The canal is to be so strongly built that it will allow vessels to steam six knots an hour. The cost is put at $100,000,000.

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QUESTION DEPARTMENT

o vary the interest in these series of questions, as well as to increase the educational benefits arising from their daily study in tracing them to the sources of the history, it is designed, for a while, to group the questions under specific countries, and to withhold reference to the pages in the Britannica, or in the New Supplement thereto, where the answers may be sought. In the present series of questions (for the month of January), it may suffice to say that answers will be found either under the general article on England, in the E. B., or under the historical personages or specific events referred to in the questions.—ED. S. C.

ENGLISH HISTORY

Jan. 1. Explain the character, religion, and customs of the early Britons.

Jan. 2. Why did the Romans invade Britain, and what effects were produced by the Roman occupation?

Jan. 3. Give an account of the coming of the English and their conquest of Britain. In what respect did this conquest differ from other conquests?

Jan. 4. Describe the character, customs, and mode of government of the Anglo-Saxons. How was justice administered among them?

Jan. 5. Relate briefly the principal events from the accession of Edward the Confessor to the Battle of Hastings.

Jan. 6. Point out the effects produced by the Norman Conquest on the people of England.

Jan. 7. State the chief provisions of the Great Charter. Give an account of the struggle by which it was obtained.

Jan. 8. Show that Parliament in the reigns of Edward I., II., and III. became very powerful.

Jan. 9. What was the cause of the "Hundred Years' War"? What great victories were won and how by the English in the reign of Edward III.? What treaty for a while closed this war?

Jan. 10. What was the origin of the name "War of the Roses"? What led to it? Name the principal battles fought, and tell how the war ended.

Jan. 11. Who were John Wyclif, Wat Tyler, Geoffrey Chaucer, and the Earl of Warwick? Why was the latter called "The Kingmaker"?

Jan. 12. Under what circumstances did Henry VIII. come to the throne? Why was he popular with the people? Compare his character at the beginning with his character at the close of his reign, and account for the change.

Jan 13. What caused Henry VIII. to separate from the Church of Rome? What steps did he take in doing so? Show that the King then had great power in Church and State.

Jan. 14. Give, as well as you can, a pen-and-ink portrait of Elizabeth, with respect (1) to personal appearance and accomplishments; (2) moral qualities; and (3) mental qualities. Compare her with Mary, Queen of Scots. Who are the great Elizabethan writers?

Jan. 15. Tell the story of the imprisonment and death of Mary, Queen of Scots.

Jan. 16. The accession of the House of Tudor is said to mark the beginning of a long period of well-nigh absolute royal power. Find out in what way this came about, and cite any instances of Tudor despotism.

Jan. 17. State the points of controversy between the Crown and the Commons in the early parliaments of Charles I.

Jan. 18. Sketch the events immediately prior to the outbreak of the civil war. For what are the following persons famous: Hampden, Pym, Laud, Strafford?

Jan. 19. Explain the terms: Self-denying Ordinance, Pride's Purge, The Rump Parliament, The Cabal, Whigs and Tories.

Jan. 20. Give the chief incidents of the Long Parliament, and state the complaints embodied in the Grand Remonstrance.

Jan. 21. How were the English people divided by the civil war? Name the chief battles of this war. Who were the "Ironsides," and what was their character?

Jan. 22. What were the main causes of the expulsion of James II. from the throne? Cite the chief clauses of the Declaration of Rights.

Jan. 23. Explain what is meant by the terms "The Cabinet," "Party Government," "Jacobitism." Who were "The Pretender" and the "Young Pretender"?

Jan. 24. Distinguish between "the two Pitts," and tell what you know of Burke, Fox, Sheridan, Warren Hastings, and John Wilkes.

Jan. 25. Explain the chief causes of the French Revolution, and show how England was drawn into war with France.

Jan. 26. Sketch briefly the principal events of the Peninsular War. How did this war arise, and how did it affect Napoleon's power?

Jan. 27. Why did England and the United States go to war in 1812? How did the war end?

Jan. 28. State briefly what you know of the characters and careers of the Duke of Wellington, Lord John Russell, Sir Robert Peel.

Jan. 29. What were the Corn Laws? Give the provisions of the Reform Bills of 1867, 1884-5. Show that the Victorian Age exemplifies the growth of Democracy.

Jan. 30. What claim had Queen Victoria to the English throne, and what has been the character of her rule?

Jan. 31. Connect the following personages with important events in the Queen's reign: Richard Cobden, John Bright, Sir Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde), Lord Raglan, Lord Wolseley, Disraeli, Gladstone.

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

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THE SEVEN WONDERS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

THE wonder of one century is the commonplace of the next. Bacon was justly regarded as a great natural philosopher in the seventeenth century, but Franklin in the eighteenth century made discoveries in natural science which were not dreamed of in Bacon's philosophy. The brilliant experimentalist of the seventeenth century contracted a fatal cold while proving that a dead fowl could be preserved from decay by the application of snow. The great experimentalist of the eighteenth century risked his life in order to prove that lightning and electricity are the same. Bacon and Franklin were far in advance of their age, but compared with the wonderful inventions of the practical discoverers of the nineteenth century, they were little children groping in the dark. But all honor is due to the illustrious men whose acute and vigorous intellects rescued natural philosophy from its ancient barrenness—who prepared the ground and planted the seed whose ripe fruit we today live to enjoy.

Judging the tree by its fruit, the scientific discoveries of the nineteenth century are the most wonderful that have enriched and benefited the world. Compared with the splendid, practical science of Fulton, Stephenson, Morse, Edison, and others, the philosophy of Plato, Seneca, and Aristotle was merely an intellectual dream, in the main useless to mankind. While the lofty philosophical speculations of the Academy and the Portico ended in nothing, the glorious scientific achievements of the nineteenth century have more than realized the wonders of Aladdin's lamp. The ancient philosophy disdained to be useful, and was content to remain stationary. Modern philosophy, in the language of the last great poet of the nineteenth century, is

"Ever reaping something new."

Epicurus declared, more than two thousand years ago, that no more improvements were possible in the arts which promote the comforts of life. It has been truly said that mere words, and nothing but words, had been the whole fruit of all the toil of all the most renowned sages of sixty generations. If Bacon could truly declare, in his day, that modern science had enlarged the boundary of human empire, how much more truly can we claim that modern science has enlarged the sphere of every human activity! It has lengthened life; it has shortened distances; it has assuaged pain; it has saved time; it has annihilated space; it has unravelled the mysteries of nature; it has improved agriculture; it has covered the waters of the world with vessels that move without sails and the land with carriages that rush across continents without horses; it has enabled one man to do the work of a hundred; it has turned night into day by the power of illumination; it has seized the lightning and made it the handmaid of man; it has enabled each of us to talk to our friends a thousand miles away as though they were our next door neighbors; it has more than realized the boast of Puck that he would "put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes."

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These are a few of the immense achievements of modern science. More than fifty years ago, Macaulay said, in his brilliant essay on Bacon, that "it is a philosophy that never rests, which is never perfect, its law is progress, a point which yesterday was invisible is its goal to-day and will be its starting-point to-morrow." This claim was made when modern science was, as yet, only a struggling infant; when the electric telegraph was unknown; when the telephone and phonograph were unthought of.

The Seven Wonders of the Nineteenth Century we purpose in the present paper to deal with are the Steam Engine, the Electric Telegraph, Phonography, Photography, the Sewing Machine, the X-Ray, and the Telephone. These are the genii, it may be truly said, that have done more for the material advancement of mankind than had been done in all the preceding centuries of the world's history.

When Robert Fulton, on that memorable day, August 11, 1807, left New York in the little steamboat "Clermont," bound for Albany, which city he reached in thirty hours, his successful experiment decided forever the practicability of steam navigation. From the little "Clermont" of 1807 to the magnificent floating palaces that now cross the Atlantic with the regularity of ferry boats, there has been a long stretch of time, during which almost every navigable river of the civilized world has been traversed by steamboats. Within thirty years after the "Clermont" steamed up the Hudson, there were eighty-six steamboats plying on that river and Long Island Sound, while the music of the steam whistle was heard on nearly all the navigable waters of the United States.

There is an immense distance between George Stephenson's first steam engine, which drew thirty tons' weight at a speed of four miles an hour, and the powerful locomotives that now draw tremendous trains at a speed of sixty miles an hour. But more honor is due to George Stephenson, whose inspired perseverance was finally crowned with success, than to the builder of the most magnificent engine that draws a train of cars across the American continent in five days. Stephenson was pronounced the "greatest practical genius of his age." He was, indeed, the brave Achilles of the modern Iliad. Like all men in advance of their age, he had to contend with many difficulties and endure much opposition. Among other things, it was gravely declared that the working of a railway would prevent cows from grazing, hens from laying, and that the poisoned air from the locomotives would kill the birds as they flew over them — that houses on the line of railroads would be burned by the fires thrown from the engine chimneys, while the air would be polluted by smoke.

The Liverpool and Manchester, the first long distance railroad in the world, was opened on the 15th of September, 1830. It soon proved a signal success, but for many years not a few great personages declined to travel by rail. It was not until 1843 that the Duke of Wellington made his first trip on a railroad, in attendance upon Queen Victoria, who, the previous year, began to use the railroad when travelling from Windsor to London. George Stephenson was a greater hero, and a greater benefactor to the human race than all the world's conquerors from Alexander to Napoleon. He was the prince of the rail — the founder of the dynasty of engineers. He was the leader of the greatest revolution that has ever taken place in the world. The poor pitman became a prince among men, and the name of George Stephenson will be mentioned with respect when the names of the noble lords who selfishly opposed him will be forgotten as though they had never lived among men.

The old saying that "necessity is the mother of invention" was never more strikingly illustrated than it has been in this country in the present century. As the United States grew larger and the increasing population formed communities and States west of the great chain of mountains which form the eastern section of this vast continent, a more rapid system of communication was found necessary; and, before this century had accomplished half its course, steamboats and steam-cars were bringing our scattered people into regular communication. Vast as was the change from the stage coach to the steam-car, a still more rapid means of communication was required. The inventive genius and remarkable perseverance of Samuel F. B. Morse supplied this want, when, in 1844, the transmission of messages between distant places became an accomplished fact.

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We, who read in our morning newspaper the history of the whole world of the previous twenty-four hours, can scarcely realize human existence deprived of the electric telegraph. By discovering this new power in nature, Professor Morse became the prime benefactor of the race, and contributed immensely to the civilization of the world. As light destroys darkness, so the light of science destroys the darkness of barbarism, and wherever true science lives, error must die.

When Morse's genius was crowned with the reward of splendid success, those who had laughed at him as a dreamer, were among the first to place the victorious laurel upon his brow. A poet of the time wrote:—

"What more, presumptuous mortals, will you dare?
See Franklin seize the clouds, their bolts to bury;
The Sun assigns his pencil to Daguerre,
And Morse the Lightning makes his secretary."

Our plain American citizen, within a few years after his brilliant invention, had honors showered upon him by the monarchs of Europe. Strange to say, the Sultan of Turkey was the first European sovereign to bestow a decoration (the Order of Glory) upon the inventor of the magnetic telegraph. This was in 1848, and was soon followed by the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria, each of whom presented Morse with the Gold Medal of Scientific Merit. In 1856, Napoleon III. invested him with the decoration of a Chevalier of the Legion of Honor. In 1857, the King of Denmark decorated him with the Cross of Knight Commander in the order of the Dannebrog. In 1858, the Queen of Spain presented him with the Cross of the Knight Commander of the Order of Isabella the Catholic. The King of Italy gave him the Cross of the Order of SS. Maurice and Lazarus.

In 1858, the Emperor of France called together a European Congress at Paris for the special purpose of devising a suitable testimonial to Professor Morse; and it was unanimously agreed among the representatives of the ten sovereign states that participated in the Congress to present 400,000 francs as "an honorary gratuity to Professor Morse," a "collective act to demonstrate the sentiments of public gratitude justly excited by his invention." All the countries of Europe were represented at this Congress except England, Prussia, Spain, and Denmark.

Professor Morse's own country was not unmindful of his great services in the cause of practical science, and it is with pleasure that I record that he received the honors and emoluments which he had justly earned. Yale College conferred upon him the degree of LL. D.; a public banquet presided over by the then Chief Justice of the United States (Salmon P. Chase) was tendered him in New York, in 1868; and, in 1871, his statue was unveiled in Central Park, New York, with the most elaborate ceremonies, and in the presence of the leading men of the nation, including delegates from every State of the Union. This was followed by a reception at the Academy of Music, at which the great inventor received a splendid ovation from the large and enthusiastic audience.

The first marine cable across the harbor of New York was laid by Professor Morse, in 1842; and, a year later, he wrote that a "practical inference from the law of electro-magnetism is that a telegraphic communication may with certainty be established across the Atlantic Ocean. Startling as this may now seem," he said, "I am confident that the time will come when this project will be realized." He lived to see this wonderful achievement realized, and died April 2, 1872, a few weeks after the transmission of messages *both ways* over the *same wires* at the *same time* had been successfully accomplished.

Since the first telegraphic message was sent, between Baltimore and Washington, on that memorable May morning in 1844, telegraph wires have encircled the globe, and the last published statistics show that the world's telegraph system now reaches 4,908,921 miles, exclusive of 180,440 miles of submarine cables. Europe has 1,764,790 miles, Asia 310,685 miles, Africa 99,419 miles, Australia 217,479 miles, and America 2,516,548 miles.

The Atlantic Telegraph, one of the crowning achievements of this age of wonders, which has united all nations of the world, was conceived and successfully carried out by the indomitable pluck and perseverance of one of our own countrymen, Cyrus W. Field. On the tomb of Columbus is inscribed the proud epitaph: "He gave a New World to Castile and

Leon." To Morse and Field, belong the glory of binding the two worlds together, — binding together, not only the civilized worlds of Europe and America, but the ancient civilizations of Asia as well as the primitive nations of Darkest Africa.

At the memorable banquet given to Cyrus W. Field, by the Chamber of Commerce of New York (November 15, 1866), the venerable Peter Cooper, in response to a toast, said: "For one, I rejoice in every application of science to any and to all the useful purposes of life." General Meade observed on the same occasion that the Atlantic Telegraph was one of the greatest works this world has ever seen, the success of which made Cyrus W. Field not only the representative of New York, but of America and of the world. Chief Justice Chase pronounced the Atlantic Telegraph "the most wonderful achievement of civilization," and boasted that "the name of Cyrus W. Field will take a distinguished rank among the benefactors of the world, and there it will remain in honor while oceans divide and telegraphs unite mankind."

Daguerre, a self-taught French artist, became a scene painter of great brilliancy in Paris. Born in 1787, he exhibited in 1822 a diorama for which he executed large, indeed colossal, paintings. In sketching from nature for this purpose, he frequently made use of the *camera obscura* with results that surprised and delighted him by their beauty. His success in this induced him to attempt the discovery of some means by which images could be permanently retained. After many experiments, extending over seventeen years, he finally, in 1839, announced that all difficulties were overcome, and that henceforth Nature would depict her own likenesses with a pencil of light." The attention of Arago, the first scientist of his age, having been brought to the new process, he was delighted with the invention, and proclaimed it to the world. His endorsement at once proved its worth, and at his recommendation, the French government bestowed upon Daguerre a life pension, of 6,000 francs, that France "should have the glory of endowing the world of science and of art with one of the most surprising discoveries that honor his [Daugerre's] native land."

The Parisians went into ecstasies over the new discovery, and Daguerre made fame and fortune by his inventive genius. For twelve years, that is from 1839 to 1851, the daguerreotype was very popular in this country, portraits by this method having been first taken in New York at the suggestion of Dr. Draper, professor of chemistry in the University of New York. The process was far from perfect, but it was so far in advance of all other attempts in the same direction that its discovery places Daguerre among the leading inventors of the nineteenth century. It moreover prepared the way for the photograph, whose perfect results we are now enjoying.

Photography was invented, as was seen in the article in SELF CULTURE last month, by Henry Fox-Talbot of England, who began his scientific investigations in 1834. While sketching the lovely scenery of the Italian lakes with the aid of a *camera obscura*, he "was struck with the idea that it might be possible to fix, and retain permanently, the exquisite *facsimiles* of surrounding objects produced by the aid of that instrument." After devoting six years to the study of the problem, Talbot in 1839, about the time that Daguerre was announcing his invention, succeeded in producing a picture by the aid of light alone. This was the beginning of Photography, the latest result of which has been reached in the form of colored pictures. Since its first discovery, in 1839, the time used in taking photographs has been slowly decreased; at first it took thirty minutes; now it takes one second.

Almost simultaneously with Photography, Phonographic Shorthand was invented. The subject of Shorthand has attracted the attraction of intelligent minds almost since the invention of writing. From classic times, comes a tradition that Xenophon transcribed the discourses of Socrates in shorthand characters; that Tiro, a freedman of Cicero, was the inventor of a system of shorthand, by which, according to Plutarch, the famous speech of Cicero against Catiline was reported; that Seneca so improved the system of Tiro that Shorthand became, under the patronage of Titus, a fashionable study. From the time of the Fall of the Roman Empire, in the fifth century, until the revival of letters in the fifteenth century, the sword

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was more honored than the pen. During those ten centuries, no attention was paid to Shorthand, and very little to any other writing. With the revival of learning, came a renewed interest in a shorter method of writing. The first system of Shorthand in modern times, of which we have any record, was a very crude attempt invented by Dr. T. Bright. This was published in England in 1588, but met with little favor. During the next hundred years, no less than thirteen different systems were published in England. All of these were more or less defective, and by none of them could spoken language be taken down verbatim.

In 1837, a revolution in Shorthand writing began, which has placed the art among the Seven Wonders of the Nineteenth Century. In the year just mentioned, Isaac Pitman, a public school teacher at Bath, England, published a pamphlet of twelve pages, entitled "Stenographic Sound-hand." Mr. Pitman spent three years in experimenting, improving, and revising his work, and, in 1840, published "Phonography, or Writing by Sound, being a new and natural system of Shorthand.* Invented and drawn by I. Pitman, Bath, price one penny." A third edition was published in December of the same year, the size of the little manual being increased to 38 8vo pages, and the price to 2 shillings. Edition after edition of this work has been published, until it has reached a sale of nearly a million copies. Isaac Pitman, its inventor, was moreover honored with a knighthood. Phonography is a perfect system of shorthand writing, equal to all the requirements of reporting, and has become so necessary that, were its operation suspended for a single week, a blank would be left in the political, judicial, and economic history of the world.

The Phonograph is one of the many wonders of the three hundred inventions of Thomas A. Edison. By this simple instrument, he has made a vibrating metal disc, a steel point, and a revolving brass cylinder, to speak "as articulately as the lips of a human being." This marvellous instrument was invented in 1877. On the 31st of July of that year, its inventor described the principle upon which it was constructed, as being a system of registering spoken words by means of indentations traced by the stylus upon a sheet of paper wound around a cylinder, having a spiral groove cut on its surface. One morning, in December 1877, Edison entered the office of the "Scientific American," in New York, placed upon the editor's table a small, compact instrument of his own construction, and turning the handle of the simple piece of mechanism, it asked quite distinctly: "How's your health?" "How do you like the Phonograph?" It answered: "I am very well."

Previous to that winter day, the name of Thomas A. Edison had only a local celebrity. On the morrow, the telegraph had borne his name to the extremities of the earth. In the language of his earliest biographer: "Every telegraph wire flashed the fact under the sea, and across the mountains, and it was the theme of discussion, discourse, and amazement, in almost every tongue." During the twenty years that have elapsed since the phonograph was first invented, it has been so improved that it is now described as a perfect masterpiece. It was in 1889 that Edison produced the phonograph, in its completed form, as we have it to-day. Its weight is only thirty-four pounds, and its use extends over the civilized world.

On the 25th of March, 1883, a man in New York, by means of the Telephone, held an audible conversation with a man in Chicago, 1,000 miles distant, the material medium being a metal wire. Remembering the wonderful things already accomplished, it does not require a prophet to foretell that before the nineteenth century passes away, the telephone will supersede the telegraph as a medium of communication between points, not more than 1,000 miles apart.

Recent statistics attest the remarkable fact that the telegraph is now the smallest field of electrical enterprise. During 1895, the telegraph lines in the United States barely paid their running expenses; and, in England, where the government has charge of the system, the aggregate losses for the past seven years were thirteen million dollars. Wonderful as has been the application of electrical

*See Isaac Pitman's "Complete Phonographic Instructor, designed for class or self-instruction." Revised Edition (1897). The Phonographic Depot, 33 Union Sq., New York.

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energy during the past twenty years, no human mind can foretell its future triumphs. Lighting by electricity was pronounced impossible thirty-five years ago; and, what was deemed incapable of being used except in public squares and in the banqueting hall of princes' palaces is now within the means of every American tradesman and housewife. Electricity is the most powerful illuminator known to the world. The largest electric lamp throws a light equal to 1,000 candles. When Shakespeare played "Hamlet," the stage had no foot-lights, and the theatre was dimly lighted. Now, by touching a button, theatres are instantly flooded with electric light. The revolution in illumination which has taken place during the last quarter of the century is only the beginning, the future of which no human eye can see. It may, however, be safely said that men who are now advanced in life will live to see every house, in every city, and every room in every house lighted by electricity, and the same amazing power used for purposes not now dreamed of by the most advanced scientists.

In 1830, a Frenchman, named Thimonier, patented a sewing machine which made a stitch an inch long. It was used by the French government for the manufacture of army clothing. This machine anticipated many of the features of the present sewing machine. About 1832–34, Walter Hunt, a New York mechanician, invented and manufactured a sewing machine, which was successfully operated. Hunt neglected to apply for a patent for his invention until twenty years had elapsed, and had forfeited his right by neglecting to apply for a patent within two years of selling his invention, and was thus debarred under the act of 1839. In 1846, a patent was issued to Elias Howe, Jr., for a sewing machine, on which he had experimented for three years. Howe's machine, and all other sewing machines which have been patented within the last fifty years, had the great fundamental feature of Hunt's invention — the combination of the shuttle with the needle, having the eye near the point. Howe reaped over two million dollars by his machine; Hunt made nothing by his. Howe was an active, energetic, persevering business man, who fought for what he called his rights with bull-dog tenacity. Hunt, like many men of great inventive genius, was a mere child in pecuniary matters.

In 1895 the world was surprised by the announcement made by Prof. Roentgen that he had discovered a new property of retained energy, by means of which substances that were not penetrable by ordinary light rays, are penetrable by other rays produced by electrical gaseous medium. By this powerful means, the inside of a man's body can be seen almost as easily as the outside. The action of the heart can be studied; the bones examined; the course of a bullet traced without the painful probe. As we all know the claim made by Prof. Roentgen — wonderful as it was — has been proved more than true, and by this extraordinary discovery, the last decade of the nineteenth century has been made as remarkable as the first decade was by the application of steam to navigation.

Steam and electricity are the magicians of the nineteenth century. With steam and machinery, ten thousand shirts are made in the time that it formerly took to make one; the fruits of California are eaten, ripe and fresh, in London and Paris. At the beginning of the century, to send a letter from New York to London cost fifty cents in money and a month in time. Now it takes six days, and costs five cents. At the beginning of the century, before making a voyage across the Atlantic, a man made his will. Now steamers cross the ocean with wonderful regularity and in perfect safety. What was impossible at the beginning of the century is now the commonplace of today. The world is in daily communication. The President of the United States delivers his Message, and in a few hours every newspaper in the civilized world can print it, if it cares, word for word. By photography any one of us can get a better likeness of oneself for a dollar than our grandfather could have obtained for a hundred dollars. Within the memory of living men, it took seven days to go from Washington to New York; now it takes less than seven hours. Truly we live in an enchanted world: Prospero waves his magic wand, and electricity is the faithful Ariel who obeys his command.

EUGENE L. DIDIER.

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THE GREAT MILITARY ADVENTURER:

STUDIES AND SKETCHES OF THE FIRST NAPOLEON

I.—His Debut as a General.

There was little in the aspect of Bonaparte when on the eve of his first campaign to indicate the great commander. He was still a mere lad, a frail, fragile youth, short in stature, of exceeding slimness, "so thin, indeed, as to inspire pity,"—"the thinnest and queerest being I ever saw," says a writer in the "English Illustrated Magazine," quoting the words of a contemporary of Napoleon. But viewed and known more closely, there were signs that he was no ordinary man. His keen, clear eyes pierced like a sword and read people's inmost thoughts. He imposed his strong personality on every one at once; his imperious manner, abrupt gestures, authoritative voice dominated them; his moral grip was firm, tenacious, unrelaxing. He was very much the master; absolute, domineering, dictatorial, determined to be immediately and implicity obeyed. It is interesting to note how quickly, yet how quietly, he assumed his position as chief. There were many in the army who resented his appointment—older soldiers, men who had seen more, done more. He was ridiculed as a creature of Barras, a street-general, one who had never been in the field, a mere mathematician who made up by boasting for his want of knowledge and experience. On his way south he dined at the table of General Gassendi, and among the guests was a Colonel of Engineers, who wrote to Paris asking "who was the little braggart who talked of sweeping away the enemy in less than six weeks?"

The question was passed on to Carnot, who replied that the little man in question was quite likely to keep his word. The same carping, contemptuous spirit animated the officers he was to command. Augereau, till now much his senior, goes before him blustering and insubordinate, to leave his presence completely cowed. He confessed the little General terrified him. Masséna admitted that he was awed by the first glance. "That devil of a man fascinates me in a way I cannot account for," said General Vandamme, a coarse old Revolutionary General; "I tremble before him like a child." Lavalette, a relative of Josephine, records that Bonaparte's mere look was so firm and so fixed that "I felt myself turning pale when he spoke to me." No doubt the young man called thus early to high functions realized that he must assume this austere and terrible air if he was to exercise command over others. There was an end now of all familiarity, even with old friends. Admiral Dacres called on him as he passed through Toulon, expecting to find him the same old comrade, and was put at once in his place. "I was about to rush forward, when the attitude, the look, the tone of the voice arrested me. . . . I never tried again to overstep the line he had drawn between us." The little *parvenu* General, as some still called him, soon showed his quality. The troops he was sent to command were in rags, half-starved; he appeals at once to their appetites, securing in advance their most strenuous efforts in a campaign that promised them everything. "Rich provinces and great cities will be in your power; you will find there [in Italy] honour, glory, and wealth." He preached, in fact, the doctrine of pillage, brigandage, and spoliation, which, by his surprising victories, he was so soon able to put into effect.

The old fine theories of the French Revolution were now cast completely to the winds. This new leader of the soldiers of the Republic no longer made pretense of extending the immortal principles of liberty and fraternity; Italy was not held up to them as a country to be freed, but as a prey to be seized and plundered. Bonaparte carried with him detailed instructions from the Directory as to his plan of campaign. It was in a measure his own plan; but it stopped short of what, with his consummate military judgment, he knew was necessary for perfect success. The Directory desired him to cross the Apennines, separate the two armies opposed to him, the Piedmontese and the Austrian, force the

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first back on Turin, and then, by an advance upon Milan, drive the second out of Lombardy. As to the early operations, Bonaparte was in accord with his masters, but he saw clearly that the last part of the scheme was strategically wrong. It would be unsafe to leave the Piedmontese in his rear, unless they had been first utterly crushed. Moreover, Genoa was all but openly hostile, and in the move on Lombardy would have threatened his right flank. We shall soon see that the young general was not to be tied by his orders, least of all by those he knew to be faulty and involving grave risk.

The allied forces outnumbered those of the French. Colli, the Piedmontese general, commanded 20,000 men; Beaulieu, the Austrian, had nearly 40,000. But the superiority in numbers was counterbalanced by the independent rôle each was called upon to fulfil. Each had to cover its own territory with bases widely apart and divergent lines of communication, for Colli on Turin, and for Beaulieu on Milan and the Tyrol. The very nature of these inevitable positions greatly militated against united action. The French army, on the other hand, although smaller, was more compactly held. It numbered no more than 36,000 or 38,000 men, according to the best accounts. But although in poor case as regards supplies and munitions of war, they were hardy, well-seasoned troops, who had been campaigning for three years; full of enthusiasm, eager to descend from the bleak mountains into the fertile plains of Italy; led by many excellent officers, some good generals who became more famous under Napoleon, and many others still in the junior ranks, such as Junot, Murat, Marmont, Lannes, Victor, Suchet, and Berthier, whose names are indissolubly associated with their chief's glory.

Bonaparte's great aim was to strike in between the allied armies, very much as he did twenty years later in the campaign of Waterloo, the positions of Wellington and Blücher having in some respect repeated those of Colli and Beaulieu in 1796. This would give him the advantage of "interior lines," a term in military science indicating a central position from which a general can move by the radius by the shortest line, in fact, against enemies who can only act and communicate by the circumference.

At the opening of the campaign the Allies held their principal strength at the extremities of this long line. On their right, Colli was chiefly about Ceva, opposite the Pass of Ormea; on their left, Beaulieu was at Voltaggio, Ovada, and Sassello, and reaching through the Bochetta Pass towards Genoa and the seacoast. The Austrian centre was but weakly held, mostly about Dego, where d'Argenteau was in touch with the Piedmontese under Provera at Millesimo.

The French, when Bonaparte assumed command, occupied the whole length of the Eastern Riviera, from Voltri, near Genoa, back to the passes above Nice, as follows: —

1. Laharpe, on the left, 8,000 men, at Savona with the brigade of Cervoni pushed forward to Voltri.

2. The centre was made up of Masséna, 8,000, at Cadibona, and Augereau, 8,000, at San Giacomo.

3. To the right, Serrurier, 7,000, held the Pass of Ormea, and beyond him two divisions, Macquart's and Garnier's, watched the Col di Tenda.

It was Bonaparte's intention to force the Austrian centre, drawing together and concentrating the three divisions — Laharpe's, Masséna's, and Augereau's — for the purpose, while the passes of Ormea and the Col di Tenda were securely held by his other divisions on the left.

It will be interesting to describe this, Bonaparte's first independent campaign, in some detail. It so well illustrates his methods and his native genius for war, that it may be taken as typical of much that was to follow.

April 10. [*1796*] Beaulieu, in obedience to orders from the Aulic Council in Vienna, took the offensive, advancing in person against Cervoni, who stood firm at Voltri till the night of the 11th, then fell back on Laharpe. At the same time the Austrian General, d'Argenteau, was to march by Montenotte on Savona. The effect of these moves, as Beauleiu hoped, would be to surround and cut off Laharpe.

April 11. D'Argenteau's advance was checked by the gallant stand made by a small force under Colonel Rampon. He fought all day, but made no impression, and paused at sundown, meaning to renew the attack on the morrow; but that night his fate was sealed. Now,

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Bonaparte's masterly strategy, well seconded by the activity and rapid marching of his troops, concentrated three divisions, 24,000, on d'Argenteau's force of 10,000, and all but destroyed it.

It was a fine example of the great military maxim—to bring superior masses upon an enemy's fractions. On the night of the 11th, Laharpe took post behind the redoubt above mentioned; Masséna marched by Cairo on Sassello, where he turned to take d'Argenteau in flank and rear; Augereau also moved on Cairo to interpose between the Piedmontese, then reinforce Masséna.

April 12. D'Argenteau was attacked in force and dispersed.

April 13. Beaulieu learnt what had happened, and tried to concentrate his remaining forces on Dego. On this day Augereau and Masséna, combined, turned on the Piedmontese, defeated them at Millesimo, and drove them back on Ceva, Provera's division being made prisoners.

April 14. Bonaparte attacked Beaulieu and beat him at Dego, obliging him to retire on Acqui, thus hopelessly widening the distance between the Allies, who were now completely separated. In four days' fighting he had secured the great object of the campaign; his two opponents were falling back in opposite directions, and he was in between, master of both roads, able and ready to attack by either line.

The Directory's orders had been, if he reached this point, to leave the Piedmontese, and turn all his attention upon the Austrians. The conclusive military arguments against this step have already been given, and Bonaparte, counting on the pardon that would surely be accorded to fresh triumphs, chose the right course, which was first to overwhelm the Piedmontese. Laharpe was posted at San Benedetto to repel any relieving movement by the Austrians. Bonaparte then drew Serrurier to him from Garessio, and pressed the Piedmontese home. Their army, evacuating the entrenched camp of Ceva, fell back on Mondovi, where, on the 21st April, Bonaparte won another battle. On the 23rd Colli asked for an armistice, which was sternly refused. On the 25th Bonaparte, advancing unopposed, was at Cherasco, within thirty miles of Turin.

This whirlwind of victory produced consternation in the city, and pressure was put upon the King to make peace. Not that his case was at all desperate. Turin could have stood a siege; the Piedmontese army was still strong—it had a numerous artillery and first-rate cavalry. But terror carried the day, and the country surrendered at discretion, gave up its fortresses and its roads, reduced its army, and discharged the militia. Bonaparte profited more than by actual conquest, which might have been arduous and prolonged. Yet he had been expressly forbidden to treat with sovereign powers, and he had to excuse himself to the Directory. He did so by urging that, although his colleagues, his fellow-generals, and the Civil Commissioners approved of the suspension of arms, the agreement could be cancelled by the Government if they chose. At the same time, he quietly adds that he has gone in pursuit of Beaulieu, and hopes soon to enter the Tyrol and lend a hand to the armies on the Rhine.

Let us follow his conquering course, leaving aside for the moment the grave considerations raised by his conduct in this first revelation of himself; his defiance of the Directory, his astute bids for popularity in France and with the army, his exactions and oppressions of the subject peoples on whom he laid his heavy hand. The campaign so happily ended had lasted but eighteen days—from the 10th to the 28th April. Within a week he was again in the field, marching on Piacenza, where he crossed the Po. Beaulieu looked for him higher up, at Valenza, mainly because permission to cross there was expressly demanded in the treaty with Piedmont. But at Piacenza he turned the lines of the Ticino and the Po, thus compromising Beaulieu's position at Milan, who now fell back behind the Adda. Here Bonaparte came upon the enemy at Lodi, where he forced a passage in a brilliant feat of arms, a victory cheaply earned, which yet completely demoralized the Austrians. Beaulieu having abandoned Milan and withdrawn behind the Mincio, Bonaparte entered the capitol, and Lombardy became the prize of another short week's successful campaigning.

There could be no question of the commanding talents that with magical rapidity scored such triumphs as these. Bonaparte established his right to be deemed a great soldier from this, the outset of his career.

He possessed, indeed, the highest attributes of leadership, and, in the most pronounced degree, a profound insight into the true and really unchanging principles of warfare, sound strategical judgment in choosing his plan of campaign, extraordinary force and promptitude in striking decisive blows. His personal ascendancy was marvellous; no general has excelled him in appealing to the imagination of his troops, in winning their unhesitating devotion. No one knew better, and yet almost instinctively, how to evoke their heroism, how to rouse them to the finest efforts. He could play upon their best feelings; he showed himself freely, and appeared to take keen personal interest in every unit, every individual—their doings, their achievements; he knew every regiment and its exploits; recognized and rewarded merit on the spot. Mixing with the troops continually, sharing their toils, their bivouacs, their dangers, he became one with them, comrade as well as leader, the beloved "Petit Caporal," who asked none to go where he would not lead the way—a way that ended always in victory.

Napoleon showed that he could keep his promises. His proclamations were not empty bombast. Italy was to be their reward, and it soon was. He showed them the rich plains, the great cities that studded them, offering them as prizes, which with astonishing completeness he quickly put at their disposal. The surest road to the hearts of the soldiery of any time or country is along a series of unbroken military successes. The victorious general can always count upon the boundless enthusiasm of his followers. But Bonaparte held the allegiance of his by more than the high-sounding but often empty bribe of military glory. His gifts were more substantial, more material. What his men captured he allowed them (at least, for a time) to enjoy. That he had evoked and fostered a spirit of greed, a lust for rapine and bloodshed, that could only be satisfied by shameful excesses, is the chief blot upon his fame in this first invasion of Italy; and he was himself, although for the State and not for personal aggrandizement, the biggest brigand of them all.

Very early in the campaign he saw his mistake, and, although the blame was his, strove with great severity to correct it. The scenes of pillage and spoliation, he wrote to the Directory, made him "blush to be a man." "I will restore order, or I must cease to command these thieves." So officers were broken, soldiers shot, but the pillage did not cease; only it was carried on now by the General-in-Chief, systematized and regulated, and on a very much wider scale. Tremendous war-taxes and indemnities were levied on the hapless Italian people. Sardinia gave up her fortresses, and was plundered by the war-commissaries of supplies and munitions of war. From others he took hard cash. From Genoa he took fifteen millions of francs; from Austrian Lombardy twenty millions, with large subsidies in horses, clothing, and supplies; from Modena ten millions; from Parma several more, from Rome later on twenty-one millions, and so on. They might rise in revolt against these iniquitous exactions—so much the worse for them. The inhabitants of Lombardy, relieved from foreign domination, welcomed the French as deliverers, and, being soon undeceived, were rash enough to fly to arms in protest. At Pavia an insurrection was suppressed under circumstances of the utmost cruelty. Everyone taken with arms in his hands was shot; every house in which weapons were found was burned. Four hundred hostages chosen from among the first families of Lombardy were exiled to France. Such high-handed proceedings were sufficient to change, within one short week, all friendly sentiments into deep-seated, undying hate.

The French "loot" in Italy comprised all sorts of valuables, jewelery, gold and silver plate, church ornaments, priceless works of art, pictures and statuary, the inherited glory of the cradle of the Arts. This last, a shameful abuse of the right of conquest never hitherto practiced by civilized nations, the French had already tried in Holland and Belgium; but Bonaparte now carried it to its furthest limits.

As early as May 1, three weeks after the opening of the campaign, Napoleon instructed the French Minister at Genoa to provide him with detailed lists of the chief works of art to be found in the great Italian cities. A few days later he writes to Carnot: "I send you twenty pictures by the first masters—Correggio and Michael Angelo." At the same time, he asks the Directory to let him

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have three or four well-known artists who could be usefully employed in choosing the most suitable pictures and objects of vertu to be forwarded to Paris. On May 19 it is ordered that an agent shall be attached to the French army in Italy "to extract and send home the objects of art and science found in the conquered towns or accorded by the powers in virtue of treaties or suspensions of arms." Again, in June, he reports that Monge, Berthollet, and Thouin are at Pavia, where "they are busy enriching our Jardin des Plantes and cabinets of natural history." "I imagine they will not forget a complete collection of serpents, which seemed to me worthy of making the voyage." He promises them an abundant harvest in Bologna. On July 2 he writes: "Eighty wagons left yesterday laden with hemp and silk," the former with much timber was for use in the shipbuilding yards of the Republic; "I am collecting all the jewels and silver plate at Tortona. . . . We are much embarrassed as to what to select at Rome. The statues can only be transported by sea, and it would be dangerous to trust them on board ship." For Nelson was in command of the Mediterranean.

The man who could fill the empty coffers of France with such timely contributions was in a position to laugh at the Directory when they dared to take him to task. At first they resented his masterfulness, his insolence in defying their orders, and, more than ever jealous of him, were resolved to clip his wings by dividing the Italian command. Four days after Lodi (May 14), he received this news in a despatch, which gave one half, to be called the Army of Lombardy, to Kellerman, and ordered Bonaparte, with the other, to march by the coast on Leghorn, Rome, and Tuscany. The young general would brook no equal; his answer, in firm but respectful language, was to place his resignation in the hands of his chiefs. Unity of command was indispensable to success in war. "A single general is not only necessary, it is essential. . . . I should have done nothing of value if I had been obliged to reconcile my plans with those of another . . . my action has been as quick as my thought." But he must be untrammelled; if Government Commissioners have the right to be consulted, if they can change his movements and give or take troops from him, "expect no more of any value." He tells the Directory they must have a general who possesses their entire confidence. "If it is not I, I am sorry for it, but I shall redouble my zeal in the post you confide to me." "Kellerman," he writes the same day to Carnot, "will command the army as well as I can . . . but I think that to join him and me in Italy would be to sacrifice everything. I cannot willingly serve with a man who believes himself the first general in Europe; besides, I consider that one bad general is better than two good ones."

As these protests were accompanied with the news of the occupation of Lombardy, and the promises, soon fulfilled, of large consignments in specie and valuable goods, the Directory thought twice before they dispossessed so useful, albeit so alarmingly insubordinate, a lieutenant. A fortnight later they had reconsidered their proposal; had withdrawn their orders to attack Rome and Naples; had left Bonaparte practically a free hand. He had probably counted upon this; he knew that he was too strong to be trifled with, that he wielded almost independent authority; that the Government, or its representatives, could not control his policy. As he told Miot de Melito, "I do what I please." As regards immediate advantage, the wisdom of giving him *carte blanche* was soon apparent. He was not to be diverted from the true line. It was of the first importance to overthrow the power of Austria in Italy. After that the smaller States might be easily dealt with.

The operations that followed were of the same prompt and decisive character, based upon the same masterly and unerring comprehension of the true elements of success in war. Nor did Bonaparte hesitate to set international law at defiance, and, when it suited his plans, to violate the neutrality of Venice. Beaulieu now held the line of the Mincio and the fortress of Mantua, the last Austrian stronghold in Italy. Bonaparte threw his left forward and occupied Brescia, on Venetian territory, aiming, as it seemed, at Beaulieu's retreat into the Tyrol. That general then retaliated by seizing Peschiera, also on Venetian territory, which would strengthen his line of defence; his left being at Mantua, his right now at Peschiera, his centre at Borghetto.

Bonaparte, making a feint against the Austrian right, drew hither the bulk of Beaulieu's army, and, by an astonishing night march, put in practice one of his favorite devices — that of falling like a thunderbolt upon the weakened centre — broke through, and fairly drove Beaulieu out of Italy. After that the French were able to seize the line of the Adige, a still further violation of Venetian neutrality; but it was the strongest line of defence to the northward, and when in possession of it, Bonaparte was safe to turn back and dispose of the remainder of Italy.

Naples now made submission; the Pope essayed to treat, and was permitted to buy peace, although the Directory had forbidden Bonaparte to make any concessions to either Power. Only one sovereign State remained independent of France, and that was Tuscany, whose Grand Duke was on friendly terms with the Directory. But Tuscany was weak, and it owned Leghorn, a prosperous port full of British shipping, all laden with rich freights, as it was supposed. A French division now marched through Pistoja, ostensibly moving on Rome; it took the route by Sienna instead of Florence, at the earnest request of the Grand Duke; but turned suddenly on Leghorn and seized it. The booty was disappointing: the British ships, warned in time, had gone to sea. But Tuscany was at the mercy of France, and now, the citadel of Milan having fallen, Italy was entirely at the mercy of Bonaparte.

Austria was by no means content to surrender the Italian possessions, and gave Bonaparte constant occupation in meeting her repeated and well-sustained efforts to succor Mantua, which held out, indeed, until February 1797. The first attempt was made by General Wurmser, an old general distinguished on the Rhine, who burst through the Tyrol with an army of 70,000 men. He advanced on three lines widely apart, and thus offered himself to be beaten in detail by the superior strategy of his enterprising foe. Bonaparte's situation might easily have become desperate; but he broke up instantly from before Mantua, sacrificing his siege train, and carried his whole army to attack the first Austrian column, that under Quasdanowich, which was striking at his most vital point — his communications with Milan. He caught up Quasdanowich, and overwhelmed him at Lonato before the other two Austrian corps could reach and reinforce him. Wurmser, who was bringing them up a little tardily, was next encountered and beaten at Castiglione; but for the fatigue of the French troops the Austrian army would have been annihilated. Wurmser escaped into the Tyrol, and presently re-entering Italy by the Valley of the Brenta, was again defeated at Bassano, after which, with his shattered forces, he retreated into Mantua. The relief of this stronghold was the sole advantage gained by Austria in this campaign.

By October 1796, another Austrian army, 50,000 strong, largely composed of recruits, was assembled, and Italy was again invaded. Alvinzi, with 40,000, was on the Piave about Belluno; Davidowich, with 18,000, advanced through the Tyrol; and the two were to unite before Verona. Bonaparte was now superior in numbers; he had received reinforcements; and the creation of the Italian legions had released the French garrisons in the conquered fortresses. Yet in this campaign the tide of fortune almost turned. At the first onset he met and defeated Alvinzi between Vicenza and Bassano, but Davidowich had pressed back the French force from Trent, and threatening to take the line of the Adige in reverse, would have cut off Bonaparte's retreat. He abandoned, therefore, the advantage gained over Alvinzi, and hastily retired to save his communications. After that he concentrated at Verona, where Alvinzi had followed, and was in an entrenched position upon the heights of Caldiero. Bonaparte attacked them, and was repulsed. Now, for the first time in Italy, he was in grave peril. His rear was not safe, the garrison of Mantua harassed him with fierce sorties, Alvinzi in front threatened to enclose and besiege him in Verona.

He met his danger with a bold stroke. Evacuating Verona during the night, he carried his main army to Ronco, far down the Adige, where he took Alvinzi in the rear and nullified the entrenchments of Caldiero. Then followed the three days' fighting at the bridge of Arcola, over the Alpone, a small tributary of the Adige. Here the enemy had thrown up a bridgehead, and held it so tenaciously that Alvinzi was enabled to retreat from Caldiero. Next day Bonaparte, seeming to retreat, drew the Austrians down on him, and

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engaged them to their disadvantage. The third day he attacked and beat them at Arcola, but in an action long and hotly contested. At last Alvinzi was driven back. Davidowich, on the other hand, had gained a success on the side of Trent, but having too long delayed his attack instead of compromising Bonaparte in his advanced position, he was compelled to fall back into the Tyrol. It is said that the happy issue of this nearly adverse campaign first confirmed Bonaparte in the opinion, so often afterwards expressed, that he had been born under a lucky star.

Still, Austria showed surprising vitality, and renewed the contest the following year. Early in January Alvinzi was entrusted with a new invasion. He was to advance now by the valley of the Trent with the main army, while a strong demonstration by a smaller force was to distract Bonaparte's attention on the lower Adige, aiming at the relief of Mantua. Bonaparte was in some doubt which was the true line of attack, but he had himself concentrated at Verona, midway between the two, till certain news reached him that Alvinzi's was the principal danger. All the available French divisions were directed upon Rivoli, where Alvinzi, thinking that he had only one—that of Joubert—before him, brought on the battle of Rivoli, and was almost destroyed. Meanwhile, upon the other line, Mantua had been relieved, but Bonaparte flew back, and fought another successful engagement. In the end, Mantua surrendered.

Last of all, the French became the aggressors, and carried the war across the Austrian frontier. Bonaparte, in the campaign of 1797, aimed at Vienna, the very heart of the Empire. Once more Austria gathered together her forces, and entrusted them to the Archduke Charles, her best general, who had but just triumphed over Moreau and Jourdan in a series of masterly movements on the Rhine. Had the Archduke followed his own genius he would have held the Tyrol, but he was ordered to cover Trieste. Bonaparte, despite the winter snows, took the straightest road to Vienna, through Carinthia and Styria, and meeting the Archduke en route dislodged him successively from the lines of the Tagliamento and the Isonzo. He held on as far as Leoben, where he agreed to an armistice, and the preliminaries to the peace of Leoben, or, more exactly, of Campo Formio, were signed. Except for the shameful spoliation of Venice, his work was over.

In all this the man has been obscured by, swallowed up in, the victorious general. But he was already more than the brilliantly successful soldier. The little parvenu Corsican, with no heritage but his sword, had used it to such good purpose that within one short year he had become the arbiter of nations, holding the fate of princes and peoples in the hollow of his hand. He was now a power to reckon with, respected with a holy horror throughout Europe, a new force that might carry all before it. "I am only just beginning," he whispered to his devoted Junot. Every day a new horizon opened before him, and he hardly knew where and how far he might go. It may be that ideas of sovereign power had not taken definite shape, but he was greatly pleased when the Milanese lady told him she had dreamt he was King of Italy. Seeing that a full year later he sought to carve out an empire for himself in the Far East, he can hardly have hoped, as yet, to become the master of France.

But he had already set himself up to defy the Directory, for whom his contempt was unmeasured, as seen in his words and deeds: "Do you think I triumph in Italy to benefit those lawyers in Paris?" he asked derisively. He arrogated complete independence, claimed to act as a dictator, usurping functions the Directory never meant he should exercise. His supremacy was shown in his treating direct with sovereign Powers: in his formation, *proprio motu*, of the Cispadane Republic; in his first ignoring, then thwarting, at last making subservient to his will, the political officer, General Clarke, whom the Directory sent to control his proceedings. Whatever ambitious projects were now incubating in his capacious brain, they went certainly far beyond the consolidation of the French Republic. He saw no sufficient prize for himself in that. He openly declared that a Republican form of Government was unsuited to the French people. "They want a chief—a chief crowned with glory," he often said; a man, in short, like himself, who would gratify their pride, but, leaving them only empty

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puppets to play with, would wield absolute authority. It is absurd to suppose that even in Italy he had not already calculated the chances of winning high power.

As his influence grew, so did his importance and the state he kept up. His Court at Milan was semi-regal in its outward forms and observances. Bourrienne, who now joined him, found him "great and powerful, surrounded with homage and glory." The old friend made no attempt to raise the barrier, to claim any equality; he kept at a discreet distance from his chief, and gave up the familiar "thee" and "thou." Yet in private life Bonaparte lived simply, with a perhaps studied austerity of morals and demeanor. He was anxious, a little late in the day, to remedy the evils he had himself called into existence—the systematic plunder and spoliation that so long prevailed. We find him refusing with all the indignation of outraged virtue the special gift offered him by the Duke of Modena. Salicetti had strongly urged him to accept these four millions of francs. "Thank you," said Bonaparte, "but I am not going to sell myself for that sum." No doubt, had he chosen, he might have amassed a gigantic fortune in Italy. Everyone about him did so, often by his advice, for he soon laughed away the scrupulousness of some, the *fleur de délicatesse* that kept them from filling their pockets. His own share was said to be no more than £120,000, of which he brought less than half to Paris.

Yet one gathering sore rankled constantly in his heart, embittering all his triumphs. We know well how the young bridegroom tore himself from his wife's arms; how, amid all the anxieties and distractions of his command, his first and last thought was for Josephine. His love-letters from Italy are models of impassioned eloquence. "Any woman," says prudish Madame de Rémusat, "would have been proud to receive them." Yet Josephine scarcely answered them. Again and again he implored her to come and join him. The gay Creole much preferred Paris and its round of gaieties; the incense poured before her as "Madame Bonaparte," the enthusiastic cheers of the populace when she appeared in the streets, the gratifying nickname of "Nôtre Dame des Victoires." She invented all sorts of excuses to postpone departure, pretended to be *enceinte;* to be too ill to travel. Then Junot came on the scene, having brought trophies to lay before the Directory. And Josephine was afraid to let him return to Italy without her. Bonaparte received her with transports which were but coldly returned. One short week of bliss and they were again separated. The General hurried off to fight Beaulieu; when he flew back to his wife, he missed her—she had gone without notice, and on some small pleasure jaunt, to Genoa.

Soon, in the frequent absences of Bonaparte, another and more serious cause of difference arose to sap his happiness. Whether Josephine was worse than frivolous may never be definitely decided, but she certainly was an arrant flirt. The General-in-Chief had rivals, chief among them a gallant young hussar, Hippolyte Charles, General Le Clerc's aid-de-camp; "an amusing youth," according to the chroniclers of the time, for whom Josephine is said to have had an especial *tendresse*. This episode was possibly exaggerated to her disadvantage, for we know that Josephine was detested and much maligned by Bonaparte's family; but the affair ended in the expulsion of Charles from the Army of Italy. Bonaparte was, in truth, jealous of everyone at that time.

This ardent love began to abate in Italy under the shocks of indifference, if not positive ill-usage. We may see the growing change in the altered tone of the correspondence which still flowed from the camp to the court when they were parted by actice service. It is asserted by some writers that Bonaparte was tempted by the proofs of his wife's unworthiness to put her away from him, but that he dreaded the outburst of ridicule that would overwhelm the "conquering spirit," and preferred to wash his dirty linen at home. Here, again, there is probably exaggeration. Napoleon, whatever cause of complaint he may have had against her, never lost his attachment to Josephine. They agreed to differ; he went his own way, and was, as we know, involved in many serious *affaires de cœur*, but he liked his wife to the very last. He was, indeed, as all his actions proved, constant in his affections to his own belongings. His munificent kindness to his own family is one of the best and most saving traits in his character.

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"THE IMPENDING CRISIS" AND ITS HISTORY

On nearly all of the old bookstands of the country can be found a copy of "The Impending Crisis of the South: How to Meet It," by Hinton Rowan Helper, of North Carolina. That the book can be purchased for a few cents indicates that it must have had a large circulation, but there are few persons under forty who have any other than a vague idea of what the work is about, and fewer still know that it was at one time the most talked-of book in America and was hated by the slaveholders even worse than "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

Of the small number of people who know something about the book and its history, very few know, or did know until recently, that the author was still living. That he is still alive was made manifest by some caustic comments he made on the Hon. John Sherman in a letter to a newspaper at the time it was known that Mr. Sherman was to become Secretary of State. The reasons for this letter will be spoken of later.

Hinton Rowan Helper was born in North Carolina in 1829. He was of German descent on his father's side and his ancestor took part in the Mecklenburg movement which in a sense anticipated the Declaration of Independence. The author of the book was born in Davie County and was not a slaveholder. Early in life he seems to have been imbued with a distaste for slavery and in 1851 joined the Argonauts for California. On the way he was compelled to stop at a South American port while the vessel in which he sailed was refitted and this had a great influence on his after-life as most of it since 1861 has been spent either in South America or in furthering plans for the development of that country, particularly in the construction of railroads. He may be said to be the father of the proposed Pan-American railway which is to unite all the countries of the three Americas if it is ever built.

The Book makes a Sensation

Mr. Helper did not stay long in California but returned East and first came into prominence by his book, which is the subject of this article. When "The Impending Crisis" was first published, in 1857, it attracted immediate attention for several reasons. In the first place it was an attack upon slavery by a Southern man. This, it is true, was not unprecedented, but his argument was a novel one. Heretofore the attacks on slavery had largely been based on the immorality of the institution. While Helper believed the institution immoral he attacked it on economic grounds. He took as the basis of his attack the Census returns for 1850 which had been collected with a completeness never before attempted. The Superintendent of this Census was Prof. DeBow, of Charleston, South Carolina, editor of the Review that bore his name. The Review was an ardent defender of slavery and the only publication in the South of any considerable literary merit. Thus it was impossible for the slaveholders to claim that the census figures had been juggled to meet anti-slavery ideas.

Slavery the ruin of the South

Using these figures as well as other official statistics, Helper made an attack on slavery as a wasteful institution which had impoverished the South, injured the non-slaveholding classes, and was slowly but surely working its ruin. If he had confined himself to his deductions, with brief and impartial comments, the effect of the book on Southerners would have been much better. On the contrary he was as virulent and unsparing in his denunciation of slave owners as the warmest slavery propagandist was in advocacy of that institution; and in denunciation of those who held contrary views on the subject. Helper was no mean writer and he used his invective in a way that wrung the Southern heart; hence his book was denounced and condemned more bitterly than Mrs. Stowe's great work which showed the brighter as well as the darker side of slavery.

Helper's book attracted attention at once and soon had a large sale. The more it was condemned at the South the more its circulation grew and the author soon found himself famous and was as much surprised as Mrs. Stowe at the great interest excited by his book. It was at once made a campaign document and was extensively circulated, by the year 1860 reaching an ultimate edition of 140,000. After the war interest in it died out, as the issue was passed and the arguments

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no longer had force. The book gained especial notoriety in the contest for the speakership of the House of Representatives in the winter of 1859.

In the Halls of Congress

As a result of the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, the whole country had become aroused on the subject of slavery and the Congress next elected contained almost a majority of Republicans. The balance of power was held by a few Americans from the South, who were really what was left of the old Whig party. The Republicans put forward John Sherman of Ohio for Speaker and a long and bitter contest followed. Early in the proceedings a Southern Democrat made a bitter attack on Sherman and offered a resolution that no man should be elected Speaker who had ever endorsed "The Impending Crisis." This put Sherman in an unpleasant position. Either he must place himself in the position of an apologetic candidate or keep silent. The facts were these: Soon after the appearance of Helper's book a friend came to Sherman and asked him to endorse the book for use among anti-slavery people. Sherman glanced at it hastily, saw that it had the merit of statistical argument and signed his name to the endorsement, without knowing of the unrestrained vituperation which the author hurled against slaveholders without discrimination. This was made the centre of attack on his candidacy for the speakership, and he was often asked to explain his position. This he offered repeatedly to do provided the mover of the resolution would withdraw it even temporarily so that he could explain without being under fire. This the mover declined to do and Sherman refused to open his mouth on the subject. That was the stormiest period in the history of Congress. Most of the members went armed. There was bitter crimination and recrimination. There were some almost riotous scenes daily, but in the end Sherman withdrew and Pennington, of New Jersey, got the place.

Helper displeased with Sherman

It seems probable that Sherman would have been elected had he explained his connection with the book. In any event Helper was not pleased because Sherman did not come out as his open champion. This could hardly have been expected of a man so conservative as Mr. Sherman. In fact he voted before this Congress was over for the so-called Thirteenth Amendment, which was passed as a compromise measure in the hope of pacifying the South. This provided that Congress should never interfere with slavery in the States where it existed. Before enough States had acted on it, the war came on and the matter was dropped. It is interesting to note that the Thirteenth Amendment as it exists today is exactly the opposite with regard to slavery, which it prohibits every-where in the jurisdiction of the United States.

It was probably because of this failure of Sherman to champion his book that Mr. Helper last spring wrote sarcastically of Mr. Sherman and recalled an issue that was scarcely remembered, and when most people who ever knew anything about him supposed Helper was dead. As will be noted he was only twenty-eight years of age when his book was published. Lincoln appointed Helper consul at Buenos Ayres, since which time most of his interests have been in South America, though he lives in New York.

Argument of the Book

Let us now briefly consider the book, for it is not without interest even though slavery has passed away. And first be it said that there would be no occasion for revamping an old story if it did not present some facts of interest and of actual bearing on the present. The book was written for a single purpose and was controversial in the extreme, but it had some elements of truth outside of the slavery question that are pertinent to-day. The argument of Mr. Helper was that the North had far out-run the South in prosperity, although the South had the first start and had the best opportunities and the best resources while the reverse should have been true. He laid all the blame on slavery, and while he was to an extent correct, there were other features in the problem which he ignored and which are prominent to-day. What Helper showed was true in 1850 is true to a less extent, and to an ever decreasing extent, now. The South which is one of the richest parts of the earth has never taken her proper rank in prosperity.

New York vs. Virginia

Plunging into his subject the author made a comparison between New York and Virginia. The latter at the time of the Declaration

of Independence was the largest State in the country in point of population and it gave more than its share of great men to the nation in the first fifty years of our history. In 1790, New York had a population of 340,120, while Virginia had 748,308 or more than double. In 1850, New York had 3,097,394, while Virginia had only 1,421,661, being less than half of New York, showing that in sixty years the position of the two States had been reversed. In 1790 Virginia's exports were greater than those of New York. In 1850 New York's were forty times those of Virginia. At the first date the imports of the two States were about equal; at the latter date New York's were $178,270,999, while those of Virginia were less than $400,000. The valuation of property in 1850 for Virginia was $391,646,438, which included the value of all the slaves, while that of New York was over $1,000,000,000.

It must be confessed that here was a remarkable showing and one for which there was reason to ask Virginia to show cause. Virginia was long accounted the greatest agricultural State in the country and ought to have maintained that lead. Her harbor at Newport News is one of the finest in the world and she ought to have kept her position in trade, or at least should not have allowed New York to so far outstrip her, seeing how large was the Southern trade with Europe and how much nearer she was the base of supply of cotton.

The Erie Canal a Factor

There are plenty of causes for the rapid advance of New York. The construction of the Erie Canal gave New York an advantage that was never overcome by any State, as the grain from the West came largely by that route. But the canal when built was one of the most stupendous enterprises ever undertaken in modern times. Considering the conditions and the times, it was a far greater task than would be now the construction of the long-talked-of Nicaragua Canal. It was because New Yorkers were not speculative philosophers like the Virginians but clear-headed business men that the advantage was gained and maintained. Strategically, New York was better placed and must have grown rapidly in any event, but the Virginians were entitled to have held their share. Indeed, this was undertaken at one time by the construction of the stone road to the Cumberland Gap, to get the trade of Kentucky, but after this energy flagged and New York easily forged ahead.

Pennsylvania vs. South Carolina

To resume the story: Similar comparisons were made of Massachusetts with North Carolina, Pennsylvania with South Carolina, not only in respect of wealth and population and commerce, but as regards intelligence as shown by statistics of illiteracy, newspapers published, and attendance on the Common Schools. It was a terrible indictment, one that struck home to the Southern heart and rankled in the breast with added exasperation because of the unsparing language of the author.

Foreseeing that the South would rely on the fact that it was an agricultural community and laid no claim to commercial or manufacturing supremacy, the author showed that the ordinary farm products of the North exceeded those of the South by nearly $50,000,000 annually, while the value of the hay crop alone of the North exceeded that of all the cotton, tobacco, rice, hemp, hay, and cane sugar of the South. This was a remarkable showing and certainly did not indicate that cotton was king by any means.

The wealth of the country as returned by the census of 1850 was as follows:

Slave States, including value of slaves	$2,936,090,737
Free States	4,102,172,108

If the value of the slaves were deducted, it showed that the wealth of the free States was more than twice that of the slave States, and this was just about the ratio of the free white population in the two sections. By these and many more statistics the author proved that the South was steadily running behind the North, and all the blame was laid on slavery. Whether this was the sole reason or not will be discussed later, but the showing so far as figures went was heavily against the South, although the latter had considerably the larger area.

Statistics as to Slaveholders

One of the most interesting features of the book was the tabulation of slaveholders by States. This disclosed a much smaller

number than is now supposed. The returns were as follows:

States.	No. of Slave-holders.
Alabama	29,295
Arkansas	5,999
Columbia District	1,477
Delaware	809
Florida	3,520
Georgia	38,456
Kentucky	38,385
Louisiana	20,670
Maryland	16,040
Mississippi	23,116
Missouri	19,185
North Carolina	28,303
South Carolina	25,596
Tennessee	33,864
Texas	7,747
Virginia	55,063
Total	347,525

But even these figures were misleading, as was shown by Prof. DeBow, because it included slave hirers. There were a great many people who did not own slaves who hired them by the year, and these all appear in the census returns as slave-owners. Many were counted several times, as they owned slaves in several counties, so that the actual number was less than 200,000 of those who actually owned slaves. But more interesting still was the table showing the classification of owners as follows:

Holders of 1 slave	68,820
Holders of 1 slave and under 5	105,683
Holders of 5 slaves and under 10	80,765
Holders of 10 slaves and under 20	54,595
Holders of 20 slaves and under 50	29,733
Holders of 50 slaves and under 100	6,196
Holders of 100 slaves and under 200	1,479
Holders of 200 slaves and under 300	187
Holders of 300 slaves and under 500	56
Holders of 500 slaves and under 1,000	9
Holders of 1,000 slaves and over	2
Total	347,525

The Property Point of View

It will thus be seen that there were but few persons interested from a large property point of view in the institution of slavery. It will be noticed that one-half of all these persons owned four slaves or less, that is to say, not more than one family. Now every one familiar with slavery knows that house servants were not profitable. Indeed they were usually much more expensive than the same service in the North and the same was relatively true of those who owned less than ten slaves or two families. Most of these were children and a fifth were women and these did not usually pay their expenses, because they did not work hard and were wasteful. There were thus less than 100,000 persons who owned or hired ten slaves or more. This was the case in 1850 and in 1860 the figures should be raised at least twenty-five per cent. because that decade showed a wonderful growth in the South. Is it not surprising that so long a war was waged for so small a constituency? It is a remarkable fact that while a very small portion of the white people in the South owned slaves nearly a million men risked their lives to defend slavery and that nearly as many men actually lost their lives in defense of a confederacy with slavery as its cornerstone as there were slave-owners in 1860 and a great many more than had any real or fancied financial interest in the institution. This is sufficient to show that there was something more than a mere question of property back of the slavery issue, and all of Helper's demonstrations, important as they were, did not get at the root of the matter.

Southern views of Slavery

The rest of the book is largely taken up with quotations from Southern statesmen on the question of slavery and with arguments drawn from various sources to show not only that the South was running behind, but that the system of slavery actually forced free labor out of the field and drove a large portion of the white population to the Northwest. As the slaves increased the plantations increased and these took up the available land, crowding out the free soiler or driving him back into the unproductive parts of the country. The author complains that he had to sell his portion of his patrimonial estate, which was excellent farm land, for less than six dollars an acre, while no better land in Pennsylvania fetched $80 an acre.

In consequence, he held that the only thing to be done was to abolish slavery at once without compensation to owners. This part of the book was the weakest of all. Absolute emancipation in times of peace without compensation was impossible and undesirable. Even as a war measure, emancipation was not looked upon as the most desirable settlement of the problem. It was considered an act of necessity.

Now that slavery is gone, for which

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all are truly thankful, it can be seen how detrimental it was to the South and how difficult it was to get rid of it, much as it was desired by many in the South to do so. We all know that most of the Constitutional fathers, including those from slave States, were anxious to get rid of slavery. But for the opposition of two States this might have been provided for gradually in the Constitution itself.

Origin of Slavery in America

Slavery was forced on the colonies by the British government originally against the will of the people. It grew constantly and in spite of all opposition became so rooted in the South that it was never found feasible to get rid of it. There were times in the early part of this century when Virginia, Kentucky, and other States went to the verge of emancipation. That they did not accomplish this, was not entirely due to financial reasons nor was there lack of moral sentiment against it. The task seemed too big to be undertaken.

Slavery a Land Question

The negro question in the South was, after all, a land question, as was serfdom in Russia. There were thousands of men in the South who would gladly have given their slaves freedom if it would have done the slaves any good, but it seldom proved feasible. In general the lot of the free negro in the South was a hard one. Those who were good mechanics were in the minority, and in the agricultural districts the free negro was apt to be shiftless. This is not remarkable, as the race had no training toward individual effort and there was little that the free negro could aspire to. Many young Southern men educated in the North went back to the South convinced of the superiority of free institutions. When the property descended to them there was nothing for them to do but to continue the estate in the old way. There were not a few men who went into the educated professions in the North and West who held estates in the South that were a positive expense to them. It was not always easy to sell an estate in the South, for the wasteful methods employed soon impoverished the land. Many stayed unwillingly on their estates rather than sell off the slaves who had been in the family for years.

In spite of all the brutalities of slavery of which so much has been written — and there was too much of it — the average slave lived in a state of contentment. As will be seen by the table, there were comparatively few who owned great numbers of slaves. It was on the great plantations that the work was hardest and the brutality the greatest. If some feasible scheme had been devised early in this century for gradual emancipation there is reason to believe that most of the States would have adopted it. After the Missouri Compromise there was little hope of it. When emancipation came as a war measure it left in its train difficulties that have not yet been settled.

How the War affected Negroes

As a result of the war a great portion of the negroes left their plantations and followed the army, probably one-fifth of them were thus taken from former associations. Another large fraction refused to work for their masters, believing that they would soon get "forty acres and a mule" from the Government. Another fraction was turned loose upon the world by the death of their former masters and the lack of means on the part of surviving owners to conduct the estates. Another very large fraction, particularly in those sections where there had been the least fighting, settled down in pretty much the old way, working for wages for their former masters, but even then great trouble was experienced from the fact that money was scarce and the demand for products light, except for cotton. It was not unnatural that many of the freedmen had exaggerated ideas of their importance or of the immediate temporal blessings that were to follow freedom. There were many masters also who had no good feeling for those whom they had once owned. In spite of all that has been said against the Freedmen's Bureau, in spite of the many corrupt men in it, it was to a great extent an institution for good. Where the officers were men of sense and honesty they acted as arbiters between the freedmen and their former owners and the latter were in many cases better pleased with the administration than the freedmen.

Reconstruction injured the Negro

The condition of the negro was made indefinitely worse by the quarrels between President Johnson and Congress and by the Recon-

struction measures which irritated the whites and worked to the disadvantage of the negro. The crowning act of folly was to give the latter the right to vote without discrimination. Indeed, emancipation did not, as so many Northern people so fondly hoped, settle the question by any means. It left the negro helpless, unused to working for himself, unable to plan out ways and means for the future, and a prey to sharpers and demagogues. It was the belief of Northern Congressmen that the ballot would settle the matter, so the negroes were allowed to vote in the expectation that they would control their destinies. This we all know proved folly. It was like putting a knife into a blind man's hand.

The Social Upheaval

But the shock that came hardest to the South was the disruption of social conditions. Practically all of the labor of the wealthier classes was performed by negroes. They were the house servants, body servants, mechanics and field hands of the sections. Southerners were poor mechanics at best, but as the negroes were first in the field the white men did not enter into competition with them as it looked too much like degradation. So, too, the small farmer did not work and plan like the Northern man. He had no wish "to make a nigger" of himself. While the whites largely depended on the slaves, the slaves were utterly dependent on the whites for the means of existence. When the old system was broken up neither party was in good condition to make the fight for existence alone. Both suffered as a result. However one may regard the matter from an ethical point of view, it was not to be expected that the sudden placing of inferiors on a plane of equality would be relished by the whites. Such a condition has always given rise to friction, and in this instance there were particularly aggravating circumstances. The race war was as bitter as it was between the Anglo-Saxons and the Normans in the eleventh century.

Where Helper failed

It will thus be seen that although Helper was right on economic and moral grounds in his book, he had not sufficiently considered what would be the result of that immediate emancipation for which he contended and which came so soon after his book was published. It would have been difficult under the most favorable circumstances to have made the change to the satisfaction of all concerned. All things considered, matters have worked themselves out better than could have been expected. For more than thirty years the South has been wrestling with the subject, not always wisely, but the progress has been sure even if it has been slow.

There is however a new Impending Crisis in the South. That section is beginning to awake to the fact that it can no longer expect to pose as a purely agricultural community. The former slave States are an empire in extent and have resources unsurpassed by any other section of equal size in the world. Agriculture cannot alone sustain it. There is need for a development of its resources and the manufacture of the raw products on its own soil. It has too long paid tribute to the North. The Southerner as a rule cares for fewer luxuries than the Northern man. He seeks contentment along somewhat different lines, but nevertheless there must come a change. The sudden stimulus the South received a few years ago was checked by the Wilson tariff law and other considerations. I do not propose to discuss the theory of protection. The South for a century has claimed that a protective tariff was enriching the North at the expense of the South. If the South believes this to-day, even admitting, if you please, that a high tariff is iniquitous, the South should be eager to enrich its own section by the same means. If the same enterprise is used, manufacturing can be done more cheaply in the South than in the North. It is true, that by reason of heredity and natural inclinations the Southerner is not generally as enterprising as his Northern brother. That is a fault he must correct. What was done by Colonel Chipley, who died the other day, can be done by many others. It was said that Colonel Chipley practically made the State of Florida; yet he started in after the war with nothing but brains as his capital.

Needs of the New South

The South must perforce become more self-sustaining, and there is about to be a contest to see who is going to get the best end of general prosperity between the two races.

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Now that the negro has to a large extent been eliminated from politics, he is turning his attention to industrial pursuits. Tuskegee Institute is doing more for the colored race than any institution in the country. It is teaching colored people to be good workmen and to be self-sustaining. It is developing the morals, the mind, and the bodies of the colored race. A dozen men like Booker Washington will soon make the colored people the backbone of Southern industry. When the negro gives up his dream of social equality or political power, as he is beginning to do, and resolves to excel in industry, it will be time for the white people of the South to stir themselves. A man who wants blacksmithing done will patronize the best smith regardless of his color.

It is to the rising generation of the South that it must look for its greatest development. Now that the war is so far past that its passions cannot be handed down with the bitterness of old, comes the new question of development. There seems to be no possibility that the races will ever exist in very different proportions from the present. They must live together and they must work together in harmony or one will suffer. I do not mean to say that the white man is menaced by the future of the negro, but there is a problem ahead. The negro is a skilful imitator. Already the most successful manufactories in the South are operated by colored hands. The white people must cultivate Yankee thrift and enterprise. With the two races in an earnest struggle for the best that can be accomplished, the South can in one generation become the richest, the happiest and the most desirable portion of the globe.

The time has come to stop discussing theories of the Constitution and to learn the best means of farming and of manufacturing goods for home consumption. Lack of thrift and enterprise has long made the strongest kind of a protective tariff for the North against the South. It is to self-help that the South must look for prosperity, and if that is properly undertaken there will be a land flowing with milk and honey during the lives of many who saw it one mass of ruins and bloody battlefields. Fortunately the South is already alive to its future and is progressing.

JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

STUDIES IN LITERATURE:

COLERIDGE'S "ANCIENT MARINER:" ITS MEANING

THE origin and literary history of the "Ancient Mariner" have already been given in this magazine (September, 1896, Vol. iii, No. 6). It is generally agreed that it is the greatest poem of its kind in the English language, and the greatest product of the genius of one who stands in the first rank of English poets. If "Christabel" or "Kubla Khan" had been completed, some might have put either of these before the "Ancient Mariner." All things considered, this must now be allowed to stand first. As has already been pointed out in these pages, it is not only a great poem in its conception and plan, but in its execution and in every part. "It is marvellously equal throughout; the story never drags or flags for a moment, its felicities of diction are perpetual, and it is scarcely marred by a single weak line." It is hardly possible to read the story without being struck by the realistic force of the narrative, by the perfection of its versification, by the splendor of the language, and not least by the spiritual insight which is disclosed in the whole story.

What we have here more particularly to set forth, however, is the allegorical character of the poem, and to show the meaning of the parable which it contains. It has been strangely denied that it contains any meaning beyond what lies on the surface. Such a notion might have been defensible when the poem first appeared without the analysis and the hints given in the side notes. How the significance of these could have been overlooked must puzzle us. We know, at least, what the author thought of it. When Mrs. Barbauld declared that the story had no moral, he replied that it had too much. By which we may suppose he meant that the spiritual significance

was so prominent as to withdraw the mind from the story as it stood and from the splendor of the imagery. We do not think that this is at all the case; but we certainly find it difficult to understand how the allegorical character of the poem could be denied, although we have met with thoughtful men, not a few, who had overlooked it.

The story is told by the "Ancient Mariner" himself who relates the occasion of his sin, its accomplices, and its consequences. It is part of his penalty that he should be seized with an irresistible desire to tell his story; and it is given him to recognize those who cannot help listening to him. It is a wedding-guest that is described in the poem as being stopped; and in spite of his remonstrances that he is next of kin to the bridegroom, he "listens like a three years' child," and "he cannot choose but hear."

The poem contains a parable of the life of man, which is a journey on a troubled ocean on which different experiences are encountered of calm and tempest. In applying the incidents of the voyage to the course of human life, we have to be on our guard lest we press points of the allegory which may belong to the mere scaffolding of the story, and try to bring out of them spiritual truths —as is frequently done in the interpretation of the Scripture parables. On the other hand, we must try not to miss the meaning which may sometimes be contained in those portions of the story which appear to be subordinate.

Soon after the ship, in which the Ancient Mariner and his companions sailed, entered into the regions around the South Pole, where "there came both mist and snow," they encountered an albatross, apparently the symbol of kindness, for it brought them good luck:

"A good south wind sprang up behind;
The albatross did follow,
And every day, for food or play,
Came to the mariners' hollo!"

All seemed to go well, when the mariner, with a horrible wantonness and selfishness, with his cross-bow, shot the albatross,

"The bird that loved the man
That shot him with his bow."

Here is the first crisis of the story, representing the essential character of moral evil as selfishness. The mariner said he had done "a hellish thing," and as such his companions seemed to judge it; but unfortunately they condemned his act only because they thought they were likely to suffer for it.

"Ah wretch! said they, the bird to slay
That made the breeze to blow."

In heart, therefore, they were just as selfish as the man who had killed the bird; and this came out in their subsequent judgments and utterances. For when the mist passed away and

"The glorious sun uprist:
Then all averred, I had killed the bird
That brought the fog and mist.
'Twas right, said they, such birds to slay,
That bring the fog and mist."

And this was shown still further, when the wind fell, and the sun blazed upon them, they began to suffer for his deed. Then in their anger (as the Mariner relates)

"Instead of the cross, the albatross
About my neck was hung."

Here, as we have said, is the very essence of moral evil, not the violation of an external law, or disobedience to the dictate of an arbitrary will; but the assertion of self, the negation of the law of love, the denial or disregard of the rights of others — a state in which those who sailed in the ship participated with the mariner.

This brings us to the second part of the story in which the evil and misery of sin is brought out — in the memory of the evil act, in the stagnation of all things around the offender, in the terrible thirst which overtook him in his isolation from man, and in his inability to pray to God. These are the phemonena in the life of the Mariner, and they are the characteristics of the life of the evil-doer.

First, there is the constant remembrance of the wrong, which could not be forgotten, since the albatross was hung about his neck. Then came the terrible stagnation of life.

"Day after day, day after day,
We stuck, nor breath nor motion;
As idle as a painted ship
Upon a painted ocean."

So it is where evil has sway: there is no true progress, no real life. And this is followed by a terrible thirst, for, whilst

"All in a hot and copper sky,
The bloody sun at noon,
Right up above the mast did stand,"

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no rain or dew fell upon the voyagers to cool and refresh their parched bodies.

"Water, water, everywhere
And all the boards did shrink;
Water, water, everywhere
Nor any drop to drink.

The very deep did rot: O Christ!
That ever this should be!
Yea, slimy things did crawl with legs
Upon the slimy sea . . .

And every tongue, thro' utter drought,
Was withered at the root:
We could not speak, no more than if
We had been choked with soot."

So far the meaning is perfectly clear. Cut off from the fellowship of God and man, tortured by a sense of evil, of discord with the moral order of the universe, the soul is tormented by a thirst which finds no alleviation. A hint is given that the sufferings were not accidental, but a punishment, the result of the evil deed of the mariner; when some were assured in dreams that they were plagued by a spirit that had followed them from the land of mist and snow.

After a time a strange thing happened to them. An object appeared in the distance, which, as it came nearer, seemed to be a ship, coming onward without wind or tide; and then it was discovered that the ship was a mere skeleton. On her deck there was one woman, and, with her, a "Death-mate." They were Death and Life-in-Death.

"Her lips were red, her looks were free,
Her locks were yellow as gold;
Her skin was as white as leprosy.
The Night-mare Life-in-Death was she
Who thicks men's blood with cold."

"The twain were casting dice," and the game was won by the woman. But whatever may have been depending upon the game, no relief came to the mariner or his companions. "At one stride came the dark;" and then "off shot the spectre-bark." There is a strong temptation to analyze this wonderful scene and make an endeavor to assign a particular meaning to its details; but we shrink from such an attempt, and merely point out the general meaning of the incidents. The appearance of the ship certainly represents to us the expectation of relief in our misery from the World, and the disappointment of such a hope. The mariner had bitten his arm and sucked his blood that he might be able to cry out. It is the old story of the worshippers of Baal. They might cry aloud and cut themselves after their manner with knives and lances, till the blood gushed out; but there was neither voice, nor any to answer, nor any that regarded. So the skeleton ship passed on and left them as they were, only more hopeless. The World may promise, generally does promise; but it never gives satisfaction or relief.

Then comes hatred and isolation. Before this, when they had hung the albatross about his neck, he had received "evil looks—from old and young." But now, when hope seemed finally to forsake them,

"Each turned his face with a ghastly pang
And cursed me with his eye.

Four times fifty living men,
(And I heard nor sigh nor groan)
With heavy thump, a lifeless lump,
They dropped down one by one."

Here is the penalty of evil. There can be no union, no true fellowship between those whose life is rooted in self. The evil-doer ever departs into the "far country," estranged from the Source of being and from his fellows. So it is with the mariner:

"Alone, alone, all, all alone,
Alone on the wide, wide sea!
And never a saint took pity on
My soul in agony."

There was none to pity; and he could not cry for help to God:

"I looked upon the rotting sea,
And drew my eyes away;
I looked upon the rotting deck,
And there the dead men lay."

There was no help there; he was alone. But perhaps he might find it elsewhere. He would look upwards and see whether help might not there be found; but in vain.

"I looked to heaven and tried to pray;
But or ever a prayer had gusht,
A wicked whisper came, and made
My heart as dry as dust."

Prayer was impossible. A more hopeless case could hardly be imagined. But it turns out that there is a way of deliverance which could not have been foreseen. As "the moving moon went up the sky," she cast her beams upon the sea, and the mariner beheld the beautiful sea-creatures, and "watched their rich attire; blue, glossy green, and velvet

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black;" and as he looked upon them, a new sentiment awoke in his heart:

"O happy living things! no tongue
Their beauty might declare;
A spring of love gushed from my heart,
And I blessed them unaware:
Sure my kind saint took pity on me,
And I blessed them unaware."

There was a radical change in the character of the mariner, the springing up of love in the heart which had hitherto been ruled by self, by which means he assumed a new relation to the world and to other creatures. All is changed within and around him; and the consequences of the change are apparent. Perhaps the writer may be permitted to refer to his exposition of Kingsley's "Water-Babies" in a previous number of this magazine, in which he points out the change effected in Tom, the hero of the story, by the charitable act which he did in helping the lobster out of the pot. He was a new creature with new relations.

In the same way, a wonderful change passed upon the mariner; and, in the first place, two things are to be noted: the albatross fell from his neck, and he was able to pray. No sooner had he blessed the beautiful creatures unaware, when

"The self same moment I could pray;
And from my neck so free
The albatross fell off, and sank
Like lead into the sea."

Here is a sense of freedom; the hardness of heart, the accompaniment of a guilty conscience, was gone, and the Mariner felt that he was forgiven the wrong that he had done; and then, as a consequence, he was restored to fellowship with the most High: "I could pray." The enmity was past, the estrangement was over, and he was again a child in the family of God.

And now he fell asleep. Formerly his life had been one of unrest. The "curse in a dead man's eye" had been upon him.

"Seven days, seven nights, I saw that curse,
And yet I could not die."

He had lived in torment. But now the promise is fulfilled: "He giveth His beloved sleep;" and as he becomes conscious of the change which has passed upon him, he exclaims:

"Oh sleep! it is a gentle thing,
Beloved from pole to pole!
To Mary Queen the praise be given!
She sent the gentle sleep from heaven,
That slid into my soul."

Nor was it merely the blessing of sleep that was restored to him; but the refreshment of body and soul. No small part of the penalty of evil had been the burning thirst which consumed him, water had been everywhere around him, but no drop to drink; and all throats were parched. But now

"The silly buckets on the deck,
That had so long remained,
I dreamt that they were filled with dew;
And when I awoke, it rained.

My lips were wet, my throat was cold,
My garments all were dank;
Sure I had drunken in my dreams,
And still my body drank."

One hardly knows which most to admire in this passage, the wonderful realism of its representation or the deep lesson which it conveys.

And then another stage is reached — the return — partial at least, although to be made more complete hereafter — the return to human fellowship. A roaring wind is heard, and the sails began to "sigh like sedge;" and although the wind never reached the ship, "yet now the ship moved on." The stagnation was gone. The ship was moved on by the spirit from the land of mist and snow; and the dead men on the deck all uprose, and all began to work the ropes "where they were wont to do." But, the mariner explains, it "was not those souls that fled in pain" that had returned to the bodies they had quitted, but "a troop of spirits blest."

In regard to the "Ancient Mariner," and many other allegories, as has already been hinted, the general meaning is so clear as to be almost unmistakable; but it is often far from easy to say how far the details of the story may belong to the mere scaffolding of the work, and how far they may be pressed into the service of the allegory. In regard to this whole passage, we have glimpses of spiritual truth, whilst we cannot positively assert that we have gained possession of the whole meaning of the writer. We may, however, remark that the poet, in this striking picture of the use of human organisms by angelic agencies, may be reminding us that the work of the world goes on even if many are dead in sin; and that those who are spiritually dead may be made the agents of God for the doing of His work as far as they are capable; and that He may use them for doing

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work which they do not themselves understand.

Before passing away from this stage of the narrative, attention should be drawn to the extreme beauty of the language and imagery of this whole passage. What, for example, could be more exquisite than the description of the sounds that rose from the angels when they had done their work?

"Sometimes a-dropping from the sky
I heard the sky-lark sing;
Sometimes all little birds that are,
How they seemed to fill the sea and air
With their sweet jargoning!

And now 'twas like all instruments,
Now like a lonely flute;
And now it is an angel's song,
That makes the heavens be mute.

It ceased; yet still the sails made on
A pleasant noise till noon,
A noise like of a hidden brook
In the leafy month of June,
That to the sleeping woods all night
Singeth a quiet tune."

There is for the offender restoration and reconciliation; but there is still necessity for suffering and discipline. The mariner is cast into a swoon by the sudden quickening of the speed of the ship; and in the process of his recovery to consciousness he hears the voices of two companions of the spirit from the South pole who was urging forward the ship. One of the voices was demanding vengeance, the other was speaking of mercy.

"'Is it he,' quoth one, 'Is this the man?
By Him who died on cross,
With his cruel bow he laid full low
The harmless albatross.

The spirit who bideth by himself
In the land of mist and snow,
He loved the bird that loved the man
Who shot him with his bow.'

The other was a softer voice,
As soft as honey-dew;
Quoth he: 'The man hath penance done,
And penance more will do.'"

Thus there was a return of the memory of sin — full deliverance had not yet been obtained. The dead men, left by the spirits, "all stood together ont he deck," and fixed on the mariner "their stony eyes that in the moon did glitter." It seemed as though all the ground gained was to be lost again.

"The pang, the curse, with which they died,
Had never passed away;
I could not draw my eyes from theirs,
Nor turn them up to pray."

But this remaining part of the penalty was soon to be done away, and full emancipation obtained. The discipline led to peace and hope. The evil "spell was snapt" and soon there breathed on him a wind which fanned his cheek "like a meadow-gale of Spring," and "felt like a welcoming." Swiftly flew the ship, yet softly; sweetly blew the breeze on the lonely voyager, until there rose before him the dream of joy, the familiar lighthouse top, the hill, the kirk, his "own countree."

"We drifted o'er the harbour-bar,
And I with sobs did pray—
O let me be awake, my God!
Or let me sleep alway."

Then the ship sinks and the mariner is saved in the Pilot's boat; and along with the Pilot comes the Hermit good who will shrieve his soul and wash away the albatross's blood. It is superfluous to remark that we have here a reference to the regular method of restoration to church communion at the period to which the story is supposed to belong. But the essential spiritual truth here set forth is that the culminating point of deliverance from evil is reached in the restoration of the fellowship of the soul with God and man, which had been destroyed or interrupted by the presence of moral evil.

The one penalty which is still imposed upon the mariner, if it can be called a penalty, was the necessity laid upon him of telling his tale to certain of those whom he afterward encounters. Doubtless there was pain in the fulfilment of this obligation, but there was also satisfaction in telling of the grace he had found, and which others might also find. Like the Psalmist, he might say:

"Of His deliverance I will boast,
Till all that are distrest
From my example comfort take
And soothe themselves to rest."

That we have not mistaken the general purport of the story is, we hope, sufficiently evident from its contents, especially as read in the light of the author's analysis; but it is, if possible, more plainly declared in the beautiful closing stanzas of the poem, which tell us that Blessedness is found in Love.

"O sweeter than the marriage-feast,
'Tis sweeter far to me,
To walk together to the kirk
With a goodly company!

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To walk together to the kirk,
And all together pray,
While each to his great Father bends,
Old men, and babes, and loving friends,
And youths and maidens gay!

Farewell, farewell! but this I tell
To thee, thou Wedding-Guest!

He prayeth well who loveth well
Both man and bird and beast.

He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small;
For the dear God who loveth us,
He made and loveth all."

WILLIAM CLARK, D.C.L.

PROBLEMS FROM HAWTHORNE

By means of creative imagination geologists determine the position of the various strata of the earth's crust, inventors work out the telegraph, telephone, phonograph, etc., and writers people the world for us with beings who seem as real as the actual personalities of life.

Perhaps the majority of fictitious characters are brought before us by a minute description of their special individualities. Any emotions which their creator wishes them to experience are accurately analyzed and presented to us in detail, so that we may not only recognize these emotions as legitimate results of the development of character, but of the plot. Hawthorne's method of putting us in touch with his characters and making us feel that they are actual entities, is diametrically opposed to this.

In reading his books we do not have constantly before us the plot in the form of a perfectly articulated skeleton, or nicely-adjusted piece of machinery to be clothed with the living tissue of human emotions, as in the works of Charles Reade, Charles Kingsley, and Sir Walter Scott. Yet it is when we have finished "The Scarlet Letter," "The Marble Faun," or "The House of Seven Gables" that we realize, for the first time, that there has been a plot; but that, here as in real life, the plot is an outgrowth of the interrelation and interplay of the different temperaments, forces, and individual characteristics.

Rarely, if ever, does Hawthorne tell us of the mental, or even physical characteristics of his people. And it would be quite impossible to select any one passage, of which, when we read, we are able to say,—this shows Hilda's purity; this, Donatello's lack of soul; this, Hester Prynne's regeneration. For their mental and moral traits can no more be analyzed and catalogued than can the fragrance of a flower. In fact, one is as intangible and yet as intensely real as the other.

Hawthorne makes us appreciate, as few writers do, the problems which lie before every human being. And his works are almost exclusively devoted to the setting forth of such problems as the relative effects of a concealed or confessed crime, as in "The Scarlet Letter," or in "The Marble Faun," the educating, purifying effects of the remorseful striving to outlive a sin which was committed, almost unconsciously; and "The House of Seven Gables" is but a tragic paraphrase of Holmes' terse statement, that a child's education ought properly to begin with his great-grandparents.

In "The Scarlet Letter" we are not shown the influences leading up to Hester Prynne's unfortunate, unsympathetic union with the book-worm, Roger Chillingworth,—the growth of her love for the young Puritan minister, Arthur Dimmesdale, and its resulting sin,—and her flight to the colonies; but we first see her, a beautiful young woman, with the "Scarlet Letter" on her breast and her infant in her arms, publicly arraigned before the omnipotent and unrelenting New England conscience.

She was surely an heroic figure as she stood there on the pillory, doubly branded, and saw among her judges the man who had wrought her ruin, and to whom she hoped by her obstinate silence to ensure the continuance of the love and veneration which his parishioners already lavished upon him. At the end of this awful day, when Arthur Dimmesdale went to his home, crowned anew with the approbation of his townsmen, for his justice and discretion in dealing with this sinner, and Hester Prynne took up her life-long burden of infamy and went away in disgrace and shame to her lonely cottage, we might hastily conclude that the former had taken a step upward while

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the latter stood at the beginning of a long descent. But this was not the crucial moment in the lives of both. For when Hester Prynne publicly accepted her decree, and, with a sincere repentance, put on the "Scarlet Letter"— that moment it ceased to be a badge of shame and became a symbol of the upward strivings and the "purification as by fire" of its wearer's heart. But when Arthur Dimmesdale, by his silence, allowed Hester to take up alone her burden of shame, which should have been equally divided between them, there began for him a life of most intense torture and of spiritual retrogression.

During the twenty years in which Pearl grew from infancy to womanhood, Hester Prynne, sometimes through the public, sometimes through Arthur Dimmesdale, sometimes through their child,—but more often through the bitter yearnings of her own heart,—was taught the force of the law she had broken. But suffer as she might she kept unflinchingly to the path of rectitude which she had chosen, and at the end of these long years, we find her not only a beneficent factor in the life of the village—but a higher type of womanhood than she could ever have become as the wife of Roger Chillingworth. During these years had Arthur Dimmesdale's nature been less delicate—less finely attuned to higher laws—his conscience would have become dulled and hardened by this constant remorse. As it was, all of God's gifts that were the choicest became to him the ministers of spiritual torment. And when, at the end of this time, his conscience finally tortured him into a confession which should have been made long before, his spiritual life was dwarfed to such an extent that even by the most strenuous efforts he could never place himself where Hester Prynne then stood.

Nowhere in modern literature is the lesson more insistently taught than here, that a crime confessed and repented of is the basis of a spiritual progression, but, one concealed, although it may be remorsefully, is just as surely the basis of a spiritual retrogression.

At the first glance the problem in "The Marble Faun" might seem identical with that just discussed, but, more closely studied, we find the added element of the effect of sin upon such a nature as Donatello's. "Donatello was not so much a man as a child; not so much a child as a happy young animal." In fact when these sylvan traits were noticed in the young count, it was whispered among the peasants of Monte Beni that they were the results of the union, in the idyllic age, of this family with the water nymphs and fauns.

Donatello's life in Rome was one of almost perfect freedom and happiness. His friendship with Miriam was at first as simple and unrestrained as though they were really the children they often seemed. This friendship which appeared likely to develop into the same sort of a simple happy love, was changed in an instant into one of the most horrible and tormenting of unions,—when Donatello in a fit of jealous rage killed the man whom he deemed his rival and Miriam's evil genius. Miriam's share in this crime is very subtly portrayed, for she becomes Donatello's accomplice, not by verbal consent, not by actual participation, but by the look of consent which he read in her eyes at the fatal moment. This partnership in crime, which at first gave them a sense of relief, became more and more galling as they felt themselves separated, and yet held together, by a bond from which it was impossible to escape, and which was so full of torture that they shrank from that companionship which once had been their highest bliss.

Someone has said that sin, both etymologically and metaphysically, is a separation from the principle of life. This idea is finely illustrated in Donatello's character, for in his youth he seemed to possess a charm by which all of the woodland creatures which usually look on man as their deadliest enemy, flocked around him at his call with no more fear than if he had been a veritable faun. But not until Donatello found that the feathered and furry tribes no longer came at his call, but even shrank from him, did he fully realize that this broken law not only separated him from mankind but also from the whole realm of nature:—and thus the gay faun who shed blood for her whom he loved, grew sad and human under the consciousness of sin.

The spotless purity of Hilda amid her doves, the sweet domestic virtues of Phœbe shining all the brighter for their being contrasted with the musty gloom of the ancient Pyncheons, the exuberant

joyfulness of Pearl's childhood ought to be a sufficient refutation of the charge that Hawthorne delineates from choice the darker, more tragic side of life. Although Hawthorne gives us no mathematical solution of the problems he has put before us — yet the admonition with which he closes "The Scarlet Letter" is a universal key to the solution of these and all like problems: — "Be true! Be true! Show freely to the world if not your worst, yet some trait whereby your worst may be inferred."

M. B. JORDAN.

A NOISELESS REVOLUTION

THE threatening rumble of a revolution is always known to the elect few, while its pregnant signs are unnoted by the multitude. We use the expression, "the times are ripe," when the knowlege of some inevitable change has permeated all layers of society and has become the common property of all. We have reached this stage at the present day, for the bold plea made by our nineteenth century poets and seers for liberty in creed and constitution has fulfilled its office, which was to touch the common heart and lead the way to higher progress. The voices of the multitude have taken up the message delivered by sage and poet, and the world realizes at last, with the definite knowledge of the oracle, that it is standing on the brink of some vast change.

We feel that we have outgrown the garments which were once deemed so fair a fit, and our theological and political old clothes have suddenly assumed a look of threadbare meanness and narrowness.

Hitherto, all revolutions have begun and ended in war, disunion and radical division, but the revolution of the nineteenth century will be, as it has been, a noiseless one, and we will only cease to hold the old creeds when we have become firmly rooted in the new and broader ones.

It is a startling thought that a religious change should be other than peaceful, yet this revolution will be the only one which has closed in an increase of harmony and unity. The reformation is a mental one, for it is our intellectual attitude which is undergoing such radical change. We, as a nation, are experiencing something of the charity and breadth of middle age, and, if we succeed in keeping the enthusiasm and fervor of our youth, we may justly feel proud of our progress.

The death knell of dogmatism has struck; in science, in religion, in politics, we associate culture with breadth of view, and the higher education now cultivates an investigating, catholic spirit, which harmonizes all opposing forces. At no other period of the world's history could a Congress of Religions have been held and in no other country but America could quite the same work have been effected. The revolution was then inaugurated and it has ever since been quietly and noiselessly doing its allotted task.

The church of the future will not be founded, as were all previous churches, on differences of belief, but on the common faiths which bind men together, and the cornerstone of the new edifice will be the brotherhood of man. We have not yet reached that development, which would bring all our creeds into complete harmony with spiritual laws, but our advance, when compared with the bigotry of past ages, is enormous, and we may be proud that this change has taken place in favored America. The leaven of higher ideals is permeating every condition of life; the old, political doctrines, once believed to embody the wisdom of all time, appear narrow and inflexible, and the foolish conceit of our youth is passing away. Emerson accused us of being vain of our political institutions, and said of them: "They are not better, but only better for us. Democracy is better for us, because the religious sentiment of the present time accords better with it. Our institutions coincide with the spirit of the age." This was then true, but even truer now, for the spirit of our day is expansive, charitable, critical, humble and investigating. We are not so sure as we used to be; the fruit of some of our social institutions is now being eaten and the taste is as the apples of Sodom in our mouths. We are filled with forebodings that we have not builded as firmly as we thought. We want freer movement in our social rela-

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tions and we are seeking to bridge over the chasm yawning between the submerged tenth and our idle plutocrats. All questions touching the relations to our brother men are being thoughtfully considered; we foresee catastrophes now threatening us in church and state, which were never dreamed of by the enthusiastic builders of our nation, and we feel that we do not hold the key to the situation. Yet the whole world is looking towards America for radical amelioration in every condition, and we are so placed that we are enabled to take the right stand at the right time.

All ethical innovations in international law will probably also originate in America, for our isolation gives us immunity from fear and freedom of speech, such as no other nation enjoys. The idea of a Peace Congress at once took firm and natural root in our congenial soil and its fruit will undoubtedly revolutionize the world's opinions on war, as much as our Emersons, Channings and Lowells have influenced religious and literary belief.

The most powerful factor in every revolutionary movement is the common people, but we could have little or no knowledge of their attitude were it not for the press, which is their voice and the mirror of their minds. We cannot, therefore, too greatly emphasize the imimportance of a free, unbiased and untrammelled press. As highly as the great reformer Lessing thought of truth, and as ardently as he fought its battles, he yet said that it was "better that error should be taught than that free speech should be stifled." So, in spite of all the errors which can be charged against the press, we may gather the firm conviction that the American people are deeply moved over the hard conditions of the day, and are striving to solve the intricate problems before them.

The narrowness of the Provincial period in religion and politics has so entirely passed away that the solution is sought, not in drastic revolutionary uprisings, such as have characterized the social fermentations of the Old World, but in a peaceful, noiseless change of heart and mind, and in seeking to make practical the philosophy of Altruism.

To America is given a glorious mission, and, if it be granted to us to take a glimpse into the twentieth century, we may perhaps recognize that this change has been wrought through the wise charity, the far-sighted wisdom, and the noble patriotism of the men who have of late lived, thought and toiled in our midst. CARINA B. C. EAGLESFIELD.

THE SWISS CONSTITUTION AND ITS LESSONS FOR US.

If all the citizens of the United States were possessed of sufficient knowledge and sagacity to solve the intricate problems of legislation, and if all were determined to concede to the interests of others the same consideration which they claim for their own, there would be but one constitutional problem; — how power might be centred in the people. But against these favorable conditions nature has raised insuperable barriers. All law and all administration involve, at any given time, the dominance of some interests over others; and the utmost that can be done toward mitigating the evil is to provide means by which power shall shift from one class to another, according as their relative numbers increase or diminish; and means by which the voters may be induced to give a careful attention to the problems which they are called upon to solve, and may be enabled to acquire the knowledge necessary to a correct solution of them.

In communities whose social and economic condition remains long unchanged customs grow up and acquire the force of law; and legislation, except to redress some special grievance, is unnecessary; but, in progressive nations, social and economic conditions change so rapidly that the laws can scarcely keep pace with them, and the most fundamental questions claim attention. If, therefore, a progressive country is to be well governed, the fountains of law, whether popular, legislative or judicial, must be not only pure, but well-informed, prudent, and perpetually active. The constitution of this country

makes a great demand upon her citizens, and one to which an average man is scarcely equal; and it behoves us to utilize the experience, not only of our own, but also of other lands, in order to ascertain how those citizens may be made more equal to the task; and how the more weighty parts of the burthen may, as far as is compatible with democratic institutions, be laid upon the most capable shoulders. It is no reflection on the framers of the Federal Constitution to say that it is not perfectly adapted to our time. Since it was framed, new anti-social forces have pushed their way through flaws whose weakness was not perceived at its framing, because then the dangers did not exist against which it is now necessary to guard.

It is with the hope of deriving some lessons from the Constitution of Switzerland,— a federal republic in some respects resembling ours, but in others widely different,— that this article has been written. Yet the writer has not been able to persuade himself that Swiss methods can be adopted in this country just as they stand. They rather appear to him to suggest principles which we may be able to work out in a manner better suited to the genius and training of our people. It is not his object to give a formal or detailed account of either the Swiss or the American Constitutions. That has been done in many books and articles which are generally accessible.* But now we are concerned rather to contrast some of the salient points in the former with our own system, and to consider what light they cast on the possible improvement of the latter.

The reason for selecting Switzerland as the subject of comparison is, that democratic institutions are generally admitted to have been more successful there than elsewhere. But this result is not really due to the provisions in the Constitutions so much as to the training through which the Swiss nation has passed. The resources supplied by nature in that country are so scanty that the acquisition of great wealth is impossible, and that of subsistence difficult and laborious; yet the love of home, which is so strong in mountaineers, makes its inhabitants unwilling to leave it;— the contrast of wealth and poverty is not glaring, and such antagonism as exists among the citizens is not that of classes so much as that of cantons.† These cantons, unlike the American states, are separated by well-marked natural boundaries, and each is inhabited by a population homogeneous in language, religion, and blood; although three nationalities, five languages, and two chief religions are to be found within the federation. Each canton has a history of its own. Some were formerly under the control of others, and with difficulty gained their freedom. The size of some is still so small, and their population so sparse, that all the adult males take a direct part in legislation, and this was formerly the case in others; and, while this fact places legislation more completely under the control of the people, it also brings home to them more effectively its responsibility.

Here, on the contrary, the population of each state is heterogeneous, and a state patriotism is scarcely possible;— the differences between one state and another are inconsiderable, nor has their history rendered them in any degree antagonistic (except in aggregates); the size of each is so great, and its population so large, as to admit of class antagonisms within state boundaries; while the magnitude of the fortunes which, owing to the prodigality of nature, have been acquired by some, and have

* The clearest and best book which I have seen on the Constitution of Switzerland is, in my judgment, "State and Federal Government in Switzerland," by John M. Vincent; Baltimore: John Hopkins press, 1891. The works by Boyd Winchester, entitled "The Swiss Republic," and by Sir F. O. Adams and C. D. Cunningham, entitled "The Swiss Confederation," follow similar lines. The latter gives a fuller account of Swiss political parties in ch. VII., and of religious denominations in ch. XII., than either of the others. "Federal Government in Switzerland," by Prof. B. Moses, is a formal comparison of the clauses of different republican constitutions, and gives but little prominence to that of Switzerland. "The Model Republic," y F. G. Baker, is almost entirely historical. As regards the United States, "This Country of Ours," by ex-President Harrison, is admirably adapted for young people. The leading work is generally conceded to be "The American Commonwealth," by James Bryce, M. P., 3d ed. 1895. "The Separation of Government Powers, in History, Theory, and Practice," is elaborately discussed by Wm. Bonly, in the Columbia College (N. Y.) series, 1896.

† A Swiss State is denominated a Canton. Each is about as large as one of our counties.

seemed to be within the grasp of all, have trained our people in an extreme form of individualism, which it is now hard to counteract. We have, consequently, to contend with great evils; — a determination on the part of those who possess power to use it for their own advantage, regardless of the common interest; a disposition on the part of voters and even legislators* to sell their votes to the highest bidder (an evil claimed to have infected even the judicial bench); the bossiness of theorists, ever eager to impose their own views on others under the forms of law, combined with a great readiness on the part of legislators to save themselves from bother by enacting such laws, with the result that they generally remain unenforced; and a too great laxity in the administration of law, counterbalanced by mob-law. This training has not been an unmixed evil. It has made industry more honorable than the wealthy idleness which Professor Brentano† deems necessary to the cultivation of "knightly qualities;" but it has arrayed farmer against manufacturer, debtor against creditor, employee against employer, like hostile armies; and it has played havoc with laws and institutions, and led many to doubt the permanance of democracy, in the very nature of which these evils seem to them to inhere. But there are signs of a happy reaction. Wealth is no longer so much respected as formerly; societies, and even political parties, have been formed for the purpose of cultivating public spirit; Civics are taught in the schools; and Economics and Politics hold a prominent place in the universities. We have therefore much to hope; but we cannot, without persistent effort, consider the future of the republic assured.

One of the radical evils in this country is generally held to be untrustworthiness on the part of legislators. Mr. J. W. Sullivan, in his little book on the Referendum, p. 82, gives a shocking account of this matter; and he echoes a very common sentiment. He proposes, as a remedy, the adoption of the Swiss institutions known as the Initiative and Referendum. An argument in favor of these may be found in his book, p. 92, and an argument against them in the "International Journal of Ethics," vi., 51. An account of bills introduced in Australasia, for submitting to a popular vote any measure upon which the two houses of the legislature may have disagreed, is given in the "Contemporary Review" for last August, lxxii., p. 242.

The Swiss institutions can be more clearly understood if the Referendum be considered first. This is simply a right of veto by the voters upon any statute passed by the legislature. In some cantons no measure can become law until it has been voted upon by the citizens,* while in the rest except Freiburg (where neither referendum nor initiative exists), a specified number of the citizens may by signing their names before the proper official and satisfying him of their right to vote, require that a popular vote be taken. Federal legislation follows the latter rule, and gives the same privilege to any eight of the cantons.

The most obvious criticism on this system is that it cannot in any way *advance* legislation. It may *undo* what the legislature has recently done, but it cannot alter bad laws already in force. Besides this, it is apt to check improvements in the law. It is very difficult to frame a measure so that it shall contain nothing to which any considerable body of the citizens can object. Suppose that, in a constituency of 1,000, one hundred object to one clause in the proposed law but approve of all the rest, while another hundred object to another clause but approve of all the rest, and so on; so that, on the whole, 400 citizens approve every part of the measure, and every one of the remaining 600 approves all except one clause, no large body of them objecting to the same clause; the result is that the measure is lost. It is always possible, too, for a legislature, when forced by public opinion to pass a measure but unwilling to do so, to comply in seeming with the popular will, and yet insure the rejection of the measure by inserting in it one clause objectionable to a majority of the citizens. Add to this the impossibility of the average citizen understanding a technical statute, such as a bankruptcy law, and we shall see that the Referendum is apt to do more harm than

* J. W. Sullivan, "Referendum," page 82.

† "Relation of Labor to Law," by Lujo Brentano, translation, page 278.

* Vincent, "State and Federal Government," page 46 as to Federal, and page 115 as to State laws.

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good, unless the different clauses can be voted upon separately; and even then, unless confined, in the case of measures of a technical character, to the classes of citizens who are conversant with them. But these modifications would hardly be practicable. A better plan is to publish copies of each bill before it passes into law, and to give the public an opportunity of passing its opinion on its merits.

The Initiative is a much more radical institution than the Referendum. It consists in a right in a prescribed number of citizens to require, by means similar to those employed when demanding the referendum that a statute for a specified purpose shall be framed by the cantonal legislature and submitted to the popular vote; or, that a draft already prepared by those who start the agitation shall be so submitted. But, even in the latter case, the legislature is not wholly passed by. It must prepare a report on the matter, and may present an alternative bill. There is no Initiative for federal legislation in Switzerland, although there is for amendments to the federal constitution. No Initiative exists in the cantons of Berne or Valais and in some of the others it is confined to financial measures.*

If citizens are to possess the privilege of initiating a fully drafted bill it should be required that it be framed by a professional man, in order that clearness of expression and congruity with the existing law may be ensured. A bill so initiated might be submitted to the popular vote without serious risk of the evils otherwise attendant on the use of the Referendum, because the framers would be anxious to avoid any clauses likely to imperil its success.

Yet a more thorough discussion would be secured if, instead of subjecting the measure to the veto of a majority of the citizens, they were required to discuss and vote upon it in local aggregates, such as town-meetings, chambers of commerce, chambers of agriculture, law associations, etc., the aggregates being so constituted as to secure a fair approach to numerical equality, and each aggregate casting one vote. The educational value of such a system would be very great, and it might, perhaps, be possible to devise a method by which each aggregate might be enabled to suggest amendments. The advisability of using local aggregates for purposes of legislation would be well worth a detailed consideration. It rests on the principle that the majority of the members of a small aggregate would be more likely, after discussion, to reach a wise decision than the individuals who compose it would be, if acting separately.

There is, however, an objection to the use of the Initiative in America, and it is this. So vast is this country, and so populous the factions arrayed against one another in it, that the minds of its citizens are apt to be dazzled by heroic measures, some of which are nothing more than crude fancies of cranks. Now, if a few thousand men have power to place any measure, however objectionable, before the whole body of citizens, with the alternative that, unless as great a number vote against it as for it, it must pass into law, the result will be that the citizens will be very often called upon to take active steps, by recording their votes, for the purpose of defeating measures which the majority are known to disapprove. The only remedy for this is to require that the principle of the measure should be approved by a majority of the local aggregates before any further step is taken. Perhaps, if such a system were found to work, the legislatures might eventually become unnecessary.

As a consequence of the right of popular veto the Swiss federal legislation is valid even when it contravenes the constitution; and not Freiburg (where there is no popular veto), but Uri, is the only canton in which cantonal legislation is subordinate to the cantonal constitution, although Uri is one of the few cantons in which the legislature consists of the citizens at large.

That a statute should be invalid if it contravenes an express provision in a constitution is, however, reasonable, else the constitution would be a mere request to the legislature, which that body could disregard. But the courts in this country have created a grave constitutional difficulty by their habit of drawing *inferences* from the federal constitution, and treating statutes which contravene these inferences as if they contravened the constitution itself. The evil is intensified by the fact that these inferences

* The number required for a cantonal initiative varies from 400 to 6,000, or from one-tenth to one-fifth of all the voters.

are often very far-fetched; and the framers of the Federal Constitution would probably have stood aghast if they had been told that a law for shortening the hours of labor, or for prohibiting the manufacture of cigars in tenement houses, would be held repugnant to the clause which declares that no one may be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law.* The courts are further thought by Mr. Stimpson † to possess the power of invalidating statutes if they deem them contrary to some ancient and fundamental principle of English law; and, while Mr. Bondy, following Judge Cooley, § states that they have abandoned this claim, it must be confessed that they have gone very near to reviving it under another form by the inferences they draw from vague generalities in the constitution.

A question has been raised whether the courts have not gone beyond all reasonable bounds in this exercise of their power, — whether they have not been biased in favor of a class. A remedy might be found in a modified adoption of the Referendum. It might be provided, by constitutional amendment, that measures suspected of being unconstitutional should be referred to the judges for their opinion, and, if deemed by them unconstitutional, should be submitted to the popular vote, and that a measure approved either by the judges or by the people should override the constitution. A much more sensible remedy would be to have a new constitution drafted, containing no heroic phrases, but stating, in language free from ambiguity, exactly what it really means, and then altogether to prohibit the courts from drawing inferences. Such a work, however, would require a very careful draftsman.

The Federal Executive in Switzerland differs from ours in many important particulars. There the Legislature primarily represents the people for all purposes. The executive is its hand to execute the law, and its eye, not only to supervise the affairs of the nation, but to look ahead, and guide the course of legislation and policy. All the members of the executive council are therefore appointed by the legislature; as are also the Federal judges, and the general of the Federal army. The President has no more power than any other member of the cabinet, and the executive council always acts as a whole.* The line of demarcation between executive and legislative functions is firmly marked. The power of pardon belongs to the Legislature, that of drafting bills to the Executive, whose members moreover may sit and speak, but not vote, in the legislature, but are not removable by it. Their term, like that of the legislature, is three years. They do not possess a veto power, but their other powers give them greater weight in legislation than a veto power could do. It is doubtful, however, whether the Swiss Executive could discharge these duties efficiently if they were appointed on strictly party lines. The practice there is to appoint men from different political parties; and this ensures a fairer consideration of questions, especially in the drafting of bills. The Swiss practice stands midway between the American and the British. Under the latter the ministers of state are always elected to the House of Commons, unless already members of the House of Lords. They initiate almost all legislation, and carry it by the aid of their party majority. But, while in office, they are continually interrogated in the House as to their policy; and, if a majority of the House disapproves of it, they either resign or dissolve the legislature; in which latter case, they resign if the new House is also hostile, and are then succeeded by ministers in sympathy with its views.

H. W. B. MACKAY.

* F. J. Stimpson, "Handbook of Labor Laws," p. 43; *Ritchie* v. *Illinois*, Eighth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for Illinois, p. 462, *esp.* pp. 463, 472.

† Handbook, p. 3; p. 4 (note 4).

§ Cooley, "Constitutional Limitations," 6th ed. pp. 88, 197, 202, 204.

* Constitution of 1874, Art. 84, (7) as to Federal matters. See as to Cantonal matters, Vincent, p. 119.

"Culture," said Matthew Arnold — or what we ordinary people call liberal education — is an "acquaintance with the best that has been thought and said." Now, an acquaintance with the best that has been thought and said, even on subjects of general human interest — to say nothing of technical subjects — is impossible in these days. But a man may fall very far short of that, and still have had a liberal training. What is essential is that in some subject he should have been made familiar with the best methods, that he should have come into close contact — as a man does in tackling some great book — with a mind of the highest order. Somehow he should have been made to realize what is meant by the term "first-rate."

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A WINTER IN BERLIN:

AN AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

Nor of mushroom growth is the great city of Berlin, but from its first appearance, in 1225, when its charter was granted, it has been steadily increasing in size and importance until it is to-day the imperial city of Germany, and the most progressive one on the continent.

The push and rush that we find in our great cities is unknown here, and the people take life in a more rational way than we do; there is not the feverish haste in business or in pleasure that you find in America, while more time is given to home and its joys. Unlike us, the people act as if there were to be plenty of to-morrows after to-day, and the haste with which we scurry through life gives place to careful, conscientious fulfilment of every duty and comfortable recreation. An American finds the people, as individuals and a nation, methodical to a degree, which is almost maddening at first, but he soon learns not only to adapt himself to the new mode of living, but to enjoy the novel situation of being the master instead of the slave of time.

It is evening — the railroad journey in the cramped, uncomfortable cars has seemed much longer than it really is, and the American, inwardly rejoicing that the trip is at an end, alights to find himself in the Anhalt Station, the finest in Berlin, and the one whose departure-pavilion has the greatest breadth (two hundred feet) of any in Europe. With true American spirit, the traveller rushes for a cab, but is unable to secure one although there are dozens unemployed standing near. He soon learns that all his haste has been in vain, for he must return to one of the policemen who stand at the exit of each station, and after stating what kind of a vehicle is wanted, receives from him a metal ticket on which is the number of a cab.

Wondering what surprise is in store for him next, he reaches the hotel, and discovers that it is not the bustling, noisy place to which he is accustomed, but is more like a huge private house, with an army of servants ready to do one's bidding — a man to hold open the door — another, or perhaps two, to relieve you of your satchels, for everyone travelling in Europe, owing to the poor system of checking, carries most of his belongings with him, — a fourth to lead the way with much pride to the "lift" which, catching the spirit of the country, does not shoot upward like a sky-rocket, but in a most dignified manner, slowly "rises to the occasion."

Just as one is preparing to experiment with the tempting feather beds, for it is rather a feat to be able to balance one of them as a covering, a tap at the door announces the respectful porter who presents you with a slip of paper, pen and ink. The mystery of not having had to register is now explained, for this innocent-looking card demands in the name of the police who you are, how old you are, what is your business in Berlin, where you came from, and how long you intend remaining. American independence quickly rises to the boiling-point, but all in vain, for every landlord is compelled to see that his guests comply with the request, which takes the form of a command if refused.

The next morning, you arise prepared to be astonished at everything, and are rather disappointed if you meet anything familiar. At breakfast, you will order the regular German meal, and are served with only rolls and coffee, after which, if you are going to live in the city some time, you will take a cab to hunt a "pension" or boarding house.

These cabs are a great convenience. It is impossible to go more than a couple of blocks without finding a cab-stand, another regulation of the police, for the thirty thousand cabs are numbered, and each driver is obliged to wait at, and always return to, a certain corner, so that night or day, one is always sure to find cabs in waiting. They can be hired by the course or by the hour, the fare in either case being so very modest that custom gives the driver a small fee as a *pour boire*, or, as the Germans call it, Trink Geld (drink money). There is no disputing about the price, for each cabman is compelled to show his tariff, and, also, to have in his possession a plan of the city, with the lengths of the streets clearly marked on it. If you wish to feel luxurious, you will take one

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of the first-class cabs — well-built carriages — the drivers of which, clad in blue coats with white collars and shiny black hats, look down with contempt on the drivers of second-class cabs who wear blue coats with "yellow" collars and shiny white hats. Berlin would indeed be in a pitiable condition if it were not for this system of cabs, for in this city of one million, seven hundred thousand inhabitants, omnibuses and horse-cars are the only other means of transportation, with the exception of the steam tramways to the suburbs, none of which runs oftener, however, than every quarter of an hour, and most of them not more frequently than every half hour.

The first thing to be noticed as one rides about the city is the absence of telegraph poles, — which are relegated to the house tops — the fine asphalt pavements, and the army of street-sweepers, kept constantly employed, for Berlin is one of the three cleanest cities in the world. This sanitary regiment has a costume of its own, for the German government uniforms every man in its service, military or civil. In this case, the suit consists of dark trousers, long, heavy white hunter's coat, belted at the waist, high boots, and low cap. No machines are employed, but the work is done entirely by hand, brushes, made of bundles of little sticks, being used.

If one expects to find here the charm of mediæval and historical edifices, he will be disappointed, for Berlin with all its attractiveness is not picturesque. There are many handsome buildings which have been erected during the last few years, such as the Reichstag, which has recently been opened, but the homes are not homes in our sense of the word, for very few of the inhabitants live in separate houses, the name of "home" being given to the apartments or sets of rooms in the large tenement houses which are finished more or less elegantly.

Amidst all these human nests, it is not difficult to find "a pension," for each is compelled by law to announce its existence by a modest little plate on the front of the house or fence, and happy is that woman who can preface her name with a husband's title, for the German heart pays homage to a General, a Doctor, a Professor, or any other handle of respectability.

Let us stop before one of these houses. Ringing the bell, we are startled to see the door swing back as if moved by ghostly hands, not a living being in sight. Slightly bewildered, we look about for an explanation when the little, old man who opened the entrance by means of a spring pokes his head out of a doorway under the stairs, and asks us whom we want. Woe to you, if you cannot answer his question satisfactorily, for he is the porter of the building, and he will deny you admission if you cannot give the name of one of its inmates. Having satisfied this Cerberus, you proceed rapidly to mount the weary reach of nearly fourscore steps, and, panting, stand in the hall-way at the top of the third flight. After you have been in Berlin longer, you will learn that such haste makes waste. The frau, if you come with a letter of introduction, meets you most kindly, and before you can realize it, you are installed in a nook you can call your own.

The first thing you notice on entering your room is the ever-present German stove, a huge porcelain arrangement, usually placed in a corner extending from the floor to the ceiling, and is as much an abiding part of the house as the wall itself. The day is slightly chilly, and your curiosity is pitched to a high key to know how that great, elephantine stove can be sufficiently fed through its tiny mouth near the floor, so you order a fire. The maid assures you that it is late in the day, eleven o'clock, to build one, but that assertion only acts as a tonic to your desire, so you instruct her to light it immediately. In a few moments she returns with an apronful of kindling and a few small bricks of coal, for Germany is the land of economy, and even the coal-dust is carefully saved to be made into these little blocks. These few things, she puts into the same tiny cavity, and then disappears, leaving the stove door open. An hour or more passes — the miserable little handful of fuel has burned itself to ashes and seemingly has wasted its life, for the stove remains as cold as ever. The maid comes again, triumphantly closes the unoffending little door, and declares that it will get warm "by and bye." The stove finally seems to realize that you are casting reflections on its ability, and the more it thinks of it, the warmer it gets until it appears to have

designs on your life, for you have to open the windows in sheer self-defense.

But attention is diverted from the stove by the announcement of dinner. Who will ever forget his first meal in the Fatherland, especially if he does not understand the language?—the boiled red cabbage and sausage, while the absence of butter and tea alone would make him long for "home, sweet home," not to mention the cannonade of German gutturals which surround him on all sides. German to right of him—German to left of him—"volleyed and thundered."

When the meal ends, worn out by your vain attempts to catch one familiar sound, you are about to leave the room when your polite landlady informs you of a German custom, which consists in every one at the table shaking hands with every one else, and saying "Gesegnete mahl zeit," blessed meal-time, after every repast. Hoping the cloak of politeness may cover one of the seven deadly sins, you conform to the habit, although it has been anything but a "blessed meal-time" to you.

In order to clear your mind of the cobwebs of memory, which make you wonder why you ever left dear America, you think you will take a ride on top of one of the omnibuses, just as you have done in Paris and London, for the finest view of a city can be obtained from these seats. But, alas, there is disappointment in store for you if you are a woman, for these, the best places, are reserved for the men and the petticoated part of humanity must be contented with the modest, cooped-up seats inside.

But the beautiful Thiergarten, as you go to walk in it next day, makes you forget all the home-sickness which change of custom has brought upon you. The singing of the many birds, and the leaf-whisperings of the splendid trees, all have a familiar echo. Dotted through the park, which consists of six hundred acres, are many monuments, one of the handsomest being that to Queen Louise, the great-grandmother of the present Emperor, and the woman whom all Germany loves, as well it may, for she had not only beauty of person, but what was still better, beauty of character, since it was she, who, in the midst of a corrupt court, laid the foundation of love of home and family which is perhaps the German's strongest characteristic.

Emerging from the eastern side of the Thiergarten, you find yourself at the Brandenburg Gate, an immense arch in imitation of the Propylæa at Athens; its five different passages being separated by massive Doric columns. Passing through this great structure of sandstone, surmounted by a copper quadriga of Victory, you come into the world-famous street, Unter den Linden, so named from the rows of lime trees which flank it. It is a grand street, one hundred and ninety-six feet wide, leading from the gate to the palace, a distance of one mile. On a bright afternoon, the scene is a gay one, for it is not only the handsomest and most historical part of Berlin, but is also the fashionable promenade of the city.

Guarding the eastern end of the avenue, where are situated the University of Berlin, the Opera House, Arsenal, and Palace, is the bronze statue of Frederick the Great, undoubtedly the finest equestrian statue in the world.

But we must hurry past the University, with its five thousand students, many of whom bear on their faces and heads the scars received in their student duels, to the Museum, which acts as a magnet to every true lover of art, for this is the school where the greatest living art-critics have been educated. Although it does not own the gems of art to be found in Dresden, Munich, and Florence, its treasures include specimens of every period, arranged chronologically. Here placed around the rotunda are the famous friezes from the Altar of Zeus on the Acropolis of Pergamus, erected about 180 B.C. Exquisite reliefs they are, colossal in size but showing a dramatic power, knowledge of the human form, richness of drapery, and attention to detail, seen in no other antique remains of such huge size. Or if you are more interested in "münzwesen" than you are in sculpture, you may spend hours studying the long cases of coins, for this collection is one of the rarest, numbering among its priceless treasures some oblong, thick, irregular pieces of metal stamped with a turtle on one side, and a little square cut out with a hammer on the other. These are the oldest coins in the world, from the island of Ægina, relics of the far-away time, a thousand years before Christ. Or, perhaps, you care most for pictures. If you do, you will

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find gentle Fra Angelico, golden Raphael, rare Sebastian del Piombo, brilliant Titian, and a score of others waiting to delight you.

But the hour has come to return home, and feeling that street-cars must be street-cars the world over, you attempt to stop one, but the driver deigns not to notice you. You look about to see if you are standing at the proper corner. Such would be the case were you at home, but having noticed that things here seem to go just contrary to what they do in the "land of the free," you cross to the other side of the street, but again the car snubs you. Watching it recede in the distance, you see it stop a block or so away, and quite a little company of people alight, while others take their places. Curiosity draws you to the spot, and you find that here on a small pole is a neat, little iron sign-board marked "Halte Stelle" (halting-place), and that it is a station for the street-cars, so to speak, for they do not stop at every crossing. You hand the man your fare which is reckoned according to the distance you go, and, in return, get a ticket which virtually acts as a receipt, for the inspectors, whose duty it is to keep the conductors honest, have a habit of jumping on the cars most unexpectedly and demanding your check. But how admirable some of these street-car rules are! The seating capacity is limited, and no one is allowed to stand up inside the cars, for the Germans have too high a regard for the human form to have their feet mangled by unfriendly heels, or their arms torn out of their sockets while the body is acting as a pendant to a street-car strap. If all of the seats are occupied the conductor does not stop until some one wishes to get off.

You look in vain for flashy hand-bills announcing what is to be given at the various places of amusement, and your sense of neatness is gratified when you discover that the city compels them to be pasted on huge poles erected for the purpose at certain corners of the street—a vast improvement on our way of improvising every high board fence. Neither is your eye offended by those splashes of rude color which we see, rattle-like, tied to an advertisement. Their announcements are neat, plain, little bills, clearly stating the facts, an evidence that their interest is awakened by intellectual enjoyment rather than by sensational pleasure.

Evening comes, and with it the first visit to the Philharmonie, a concert-hall where the finest orchestral concerts can be heard for eighteen cents each, tickets being bought by the yard, as they are good for the season. There are no reserved seats; the audience congregates about little round tables, where refreshments are served during intermissions.

Or if you are more fond of the opera, you will go to the Opera House, where the programmes have to be bought, and where no man need fear having his material and spiritual welfare endangered by that modern monstrosity known as the high hat, for every woman is compelled by the maids-in-waiting to remove her head-covering before she is allowed to enter her box, for the seating is arranged in tiers of boxes. People do not go to the opera to be seen, but to see and to hear — to get into the spirit of music — to appreciate fully the wonder and beauty of it — to learn to master themselves by seeing their most subtle feelings analyzed — for in this land music is made the hand-maiden to express, as clearly as words can, the longings and passions of our lives. If one dares to speak during the performance, those around him hiss their disapproval, while no one is allowed to interrupt another's enjoyment by coming in late, as the tardy one must wait until the end of the scene before he can be admitted. At that time, the lights are turned up, and the whole audience adjourn to the corridors, where they spend a quarter or half an hour chatting with friends, and taking some light refreshments, but self is again forgotten when the cornet recalls them for the next act, and the lights are lowered.

There is no interruption of the singers by applauding, for audience and company alike are lost in the greatness of the life-lessons which are being enacted.

Or perhaps you may want first to visit the historical "Sing-academie," where once great Beethoven himself was heard, and where now the matchless world-famous string quartette, Joachim, Hausmann, Wirth, and Kruse play so divinely that heaven seems to have loaned mortals the music of the stars.

But the days grow shorter, and "Busstag," the day of repentance ordered by

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the government at the beginning of this century, draws near. It is the last Wednesday of the church year, and is observed much more solemnly than is Sunday, for on that one day in the year, *all* of the shops and places of amusement are closed; the poor letter-carriers go not on their daily round; and flocks of people, many of whom never go to church at any other time, can be seen wending their way to service, repenting in a wholesale fashion on "Busstag" for the sins of the whole year.

Surely there is one sin these people do not have to regret, and that is dishonesty to the government, for the police see that the law is obeyed. No policemen in the world have more power than those in Germany. Their authority is almost unbounded. They dictate the height of buildings; superintend street improvements, and no house is allowed to be rented until its sanitary condition has been inspected. Fire escapes have to be provided, and servants' rooms must be a proper size and well-ventilated. All meat is examined under a microscope, and weights and measures have to come under the watchful eyes of these guardians of the peace. Revenue is collected from everything; government stamps having to be used even on subscription papers; while marriage is legal only after the civil ceremony of one day, followed by the religious and social festivities on the next. Lotteries chartered by the Prussian State are supervised by the police, the proceeds going to the church.

Only one creature in all Germany excels in importance and distinction a policeman, and that happy mortal is an army or navy officer, for this body of men rank next to the dignitaries of the court itself. If you are fortunate enough to be invited into "good society," you will immediately notice the great difference in the social code. A German officer always bows according to rule, so it seems, for all of them recognize an acquaintance or receive an introduction by bending his body to a certain angle, after which it springs back into its normal position as if worked by a machine, but the "best of anything" is never surrendered to womankind.

In every German parlor the arrangement is conventional. There is the ever-present plush sofa, with a table in front of it, and the feat of being able to get into and out of this caged seat without dragging the table cover, books, and all in your wake, is to be accomplished only after years of practice. After scattering ruin in your path several times, and wondering why you are always shown to this seat of torture, if you are a married woman, you finally take courage, and ask some German friend who tells you that it is the "seat of honor," which you ought to surrender immediately if an older woman, or one whose husband's title is higher than your own, enters the room.

But while you are talking, an officer appears and greets his hostess by kissing her hand, after which performance etiquette compels her to introduce or see that this representative of the emperor is introduced to every person in the room.

Refreshments begin to be passed soon after the guests arrive, and appear in instalments during the entire evening, the maids serving it from trays to the company who remain standing.

With all their fine uniforms and privileges of precedence, one cannot help feeling sorry for these officers, many of whom are brave, noble men, for they are so bound and tied by the cords of trifling conventionalities. They must not carry umbrellas, no matter how it storms, for they thus show their endurance by a fine disregard for the weather, which in Berlin pouts and cries all winter. Then they never must ride in an ordinary omnibus, for that is beneath their dignity. Owing to the common sense of the late Emperor Frederick, who, while crown-prince, sanctioned the use of the street-cars by officers (he himself rode on the first one which made its appearance in Berlin twenty years ago), the army can enjoy that common blessing; but if they take a cab, it must be a first-class one, and if they go to an entertainment, they must occupy a place in the most expensive part of the house. Only boys whose families can afford to set aside a certain sum of money for their use, can enter the army, for the pay is inadequate to meet the style in which an officer must live. Think of twenty-five dollars a month for a lieutenant! If you chance to meet one of them on the street the day after a party, you will be puzzled to know why he looked surprised when you bowed, until you learn that it is a *man's*, not a *woman's*

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privilege in Germany to recognize an introduction.

At length, all the Americans in the city meet to celebrate our glorious Thanksgiving, a day unknown abroad. But alas, what is the feast without cranberries and mince-pie. For the first, they have a fair substitute, called "preisel-berries," but imagine mince-pie dished out with a *spoon*, for the Germans, with all their knowledge of delicious pastry, do not know how to make pie-crust.

Following close on Thanksgiving's heels is Christmas, and in no place is the holiday so ideal as in the Fatherland. The whole nation awakes to the spirit of the season. Hundreds of evergreen trees are brought to the city from Thuringia, where their growth is a regular business. Every square, and there are many such breathing-places in Berlin, and most of the business streets are turned into miniature cedar forests, for the trees, fastened into little wooden sockets, occupy every available spot.

There suddenly spring into existence throughout the city numberless improvised huts, filled with rudely carved, wooden toys, ginger-bread and honey-cakes in odd designs, the work of the country people who preside over these booths. The windows of the shops, always attractive, as Berlin is one of the most beautiful of European cities under gas-light, blaze with decorations, while flower-displays make one think of Eden, as no nation understands floriculture as do the Germans, neither do any know how to combine so artistically flowers, tissue-paper, ribbon or illusion, for not a single ugly pot or bit of earth is exposed to view. Even the meat and poultry shops, which are so clean that a lady in evening dress might enter unharmed, are most tempting, for the meats and fowls, tied in ribbons, repose in dainty boxes. Windows filled with exquisite ivory-carvings vie with windows of garnet and amber, for these things are specialties of Berlin. "Marzipan," a candy peculiar to Germany, made of almonds and sugar, takes all forms imitated, so that the deceit can scarcely be recognized in fruit, vegetable, bread or meat, while grown-up people as well as little folks are delighted by the splendid display of toys, for Germany is the toy-market of the world.

The whole nation gives itself over to the spirit of the season, and so glad are they to welcome this period of "Peace on earth, good will to men" that they have instituted a prelude to Christmas. On the night of the sixth of December, St. Nicholas appears, having a bundle of switches on which are tied scraps of bright paper, thus showing what kind of rods are used on good children. Having rung the bell furiously, he inquires minutely concerning the behavior of the little folks, and then disappears. This ends St. Nicholas' duties — he is merely a reporter, so to speak, for the "Weihnachtsmann" or Christ-child, who brings them their presents. Poor indeed is that family which does not have a tree, even if it be only a very small one, and in no place is the celebration so beautiful as in the heart of a German family.

At a given signal, the door leading into the festal room, which has been closed for days, is thrown open while the family, including the servants, enter and circle round the table on which stands the brilliant tree, singing "Heilige Nacht" (Holy Night), one of the most exquisite hymns ever written, while even the air breathes out a Christmas perfume owing to a twig of the tree which has been intentionally burned before the door was opened. There are no presents on the tree, but each one, from grandfather to baby, has a little space of his own at the table where he finds his remembrances, and a plate of "goodies" called "Nasch-Werke," from which one is expected to nibble all evening.

The holiday is really celebrated for three days in the Fatherland — on Christmas eve, the tree; Christmas day, a time for enjoying home and the presents; and the day after Christmas given to Christmas services in the churches.

But amidst all their happiness, the faithfulness of the German heart shows itself most touchingly, in one thing, for you will see, if you visit their cemeteries, that there has been a thought for the absent ones, and that hundreds of graves have been decorated with tiny Christmas trees, many of them trimmed with daisy chains, paper flowers of all colors, and other floral decorations made of cloth dipped in wax. On the high mound which marks the resting-place of Gustav Richter, the painter of that famous picture of Queen Louise which all admire so much, we noticed a good-sized tree, on

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which were remnants of the yellow candles which had given their lives in this work of love.

If you have had the good fortune, during your stay in Berlin, to meet Mrs. Davies, a German Baroness, the widow of an English clergyman, you may have the rare pleasure of receiving an invitation to be present at the Christmas celebration of the drosche or cabmen and their families, for Mrs. Davies is giving her time and money to brightening the lives and saving the souls of this much neglected class, twelve hundred of whom, representing about ten thousand people, are now under her care, or under that of the four Bible women whom she supports.

The benches are filled by these people who take a hearty part in the singing and exercises, and the cries of welcome which greet the great preacher, Frommel, as he enters the room, makes one long to shout in sympathy. He has just come from an interview with the Empress, with whom he is a prime favorite, but see how he, venerable and silver-crowned, brings the love-light into the eyes of these weary men and women as he talks with them, and listen, as he begins to quote a verse of Scripture, how the whole assembly repeat it with him. Simple it is, and yet grander in its simplicity than is the splendid court ball which follows in a few weeks, the one function in the year when royalty condescends to mingle with the multitude, each of whom has paid three dollars and seventy-five cents and has clad himself in his best apparel for the privilege. Application for admission to this great subscription-ball, given in the Opera House, must be made weeks before the event, as the names presented are examined most carefully, those having the endorsement of some member of the army meeting with most favor. The affair was instituted at the beginning of this century by Queen Louise and her husband, Frederick William III., with the hope that, by this means, the people and their rulers might be brought nearer each other. Their son, old Kaiser William I., retained the custom, and mingled freely with the people, but their great-grandson, the present Emperor, is more reserved, retiring, after he has opened the ball by leading, with the Empress, the grand march or polonaise, in which all the princes, princesses, dukes, duchesses, and other social grandees take part, to his box, which he does not leave again except to visit the boxes occupied by the Ambassadors of foreign countries.

The Emperor makes a most agreeable impression, and one can scarcely believe that he has uttered many of the pompous sayings which are credited to him, for his manner calls forth the admiration of even loyal Americans. He is about the average height, slight but well proportioned, has a clear-cut face full of character and wears his hair parted on the side, and brushed well off his forehead. He is extremely fond of the army, and usually appears everywhere in uniform. His left arm, which has always been useless, is supported by resting the hand on the hilt of his long sword. With the right, he conducts through the serpent-like maze of the stately march, his wife, a woman whose face bears the stamp of goodness deeper than of beauty, more lovable than lovely.

The uniforms of the army add brilliant touches of color to the scene, and among the officers you may recognize one whose face you remember as having seen in the escort which conducted Prince Bismarck to the palace from the station that memorable day when he came to visit the Emperor. What a fine sight it was! The soldiers in their white uniforms and shining breast-plates, bearing aloft their flying flags of white and black as they surround the royal glass coach, in which was seated the venerable man whose brain had given the shouting multitudes their united German empire.

Let the world ever thus honor the aristocracy of mind, and so let us wind our way to Old Trinity Cemetery, where a cross of graystone marks the resting-place of Felix Mendelssohn, next to that of his sister Fanny, whom he loved so dearly. Loving hands have wreathed the cold stone in evergreen and roses, while the winds, sobbing in the trees, seem to echo the burden of his songs.

Or perhaps, if you are of a scientific turn of mind, the little trip by tramway to Tegel may interest you more, for here is the former home of the Humboldt family, and there under the splendid trees sleep William and Alexander Humboldt, whose statues adorn the spaces in front of the great university.

Or if you are on a pilgrimage to the shrine of goodness, in Charlottenburg, another suburb of Berlin, is the mau-

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soleum of Queen Louise, which contains that celebrated figure of the queen by Rauch, a work so beautiful and wonderfully naturally that one would hardly be surprised to see her breathe. The light is so skilfully arranged that the rays from a blue glass window unite with those from a yellow glass window at a certain angle, casting on the pure white statue a most fascinating violet hue. The easy folding and falling of the drapery, the indentation where her head rests upon the pillow, the apertures of ears and nostrils which seem to have connection with the interior of the statue, all help to delude one into believing that this is not lifeless marble, but in very truth a beautiful sleeping woman.

Another suburb which is full of interest is Potsdam, where are several royal palaces (for this was Frederick the Great's favorite residence), the summer home of the present Emperor, and the site of the government observatory. But the chief interest centres in the Garrison Church, which contains the tomb of Frederick the Great. In a vault behind the pulpit where rests a mahogany casket enclosing one of zinc, has stood many an historical character. Over this bier, Queen Louise joined the hands of her husband and Alexander of Russia in a solemn but vain compact to unite their forces to crush Napoleon, for standing there a short time afterwards, the victorious general, who had swept all before him, commanded that the casket be opened, that his curious eyes might look upon a man whom he acknowledged as his equal.

But the days are growing longer, and the members of the American colony begin to leave for home or other lands. It is usually a sad time, for warm friendships have been formed. Then there are the good-byes to the resident Americans, there being quite a settlement of them in Berlin, and, beginning with our Ambassador and his family, all have been most kind, and have helped us to see many things. Last, but by no means least, are the German friends whose goodness you will never forget. How hospitable they have been to you, and what wonderful self-control they have exercised when you have stumbled in the use of your German.

All these memories, and many more, crowd in upon you as the sweet bunch of flowers, a pretty custom, is given to you by a German friend at parting. As you drive to the station, all your early recollection of painful experiences are thrown into shadow by the memory of the great advantages which you have enjoyed in this beautiful Prussian capital, and the memory of the many favors which you have received from the kind-hearted Germans.

(Mrs.) Wm. H. Wait.

THE HOMES AND HAUNTS OF SIR WALTER SCOTT*

THE delightful volume we owe to the industry of Mr. Geo. G. Napier bears testimony to the undying charm of the personality of Sir Walter Scott. It depicts in attractive fashion scenes which his genius has made classic, and stimulates, if it does not suggest, the effort to people those scenes with some of the real figures from whom the actors were drawn. Scott's works, says a writer in a recent issue of the "Quarterly Review," to whom we owe this paper, have won him the gratitude of the world, but his countrymen owe him a more immediate and prosaic debt of gratitude. The wand of the magician precipitated the changes, inevitable in course of time, but which otherwise must have been slow and gradual. It was Scott who discovered or revealed the charms of a country, which to the earlier adventurers coming from beyond the border had seemed a sterile, repulsive, and dreary wilderness. He found highlands and borders very much as they were when Waverley rode into the hamlet of Tully-Veolan, and when Earnscliffe went out stalking the red deer in the wastes that are now waving with golden grain. He cast the spell of his genius over the length of the land, and civilization followed fast in his track. The roads were made or mended through the wild scenery of the shaggy Trossachs and the gloomy grandeur of Glencoe.

* See biography of Scott in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XXI., page 544. Also, consult Lockhart's Life of the Novelist.—Ed. S. C.

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Thanks to Watt, Macadam "the Colossus of Rhodes," and others, who went hand in hand with him, the beat of paddles was heard on the lonely lochs which had only echoed hitherto to the scream of the eagle or the wail of the wild cat.

Soon it became the fashion to make summer pilgrimages to the scenes of the poems and novels. Each successive production of that facile pen brought an increasing rush, till, in the slang of the Stock Exchange, Scotland was "boomed." Mails and stage-coaches accelerated their speed over renovated highways. Change houses, like those of Lucky Mac-Leary or Tib Mumps, were at once superseded by flourishing hostelries which might have borne comparison with the posting establishments of Ferrybridge and others on that great north road which Scott so often travelled. The price for horses went up at once, with the ever-growing demand for coachers and post cattle. That was only one of the innumerable ways in which he scattered money over his country.

"Marmion," published in the immaturity of Scott's fame, brought prosperity to "his own romantic town." The portraiture of the matter-of-fact Baillie Nicol Jarvie gave the brilliant colors of romance to the bustling Broomielaws, and sent curious strangers to see for themselves the "weel-jointed masonwork" of St. Mungo's Cathedral, with "nane o' yere whigmaleeries and curliewurlies." Trade, as a matter of course, followed the tourist. The Clyde was deepened and embanked, far sooner than would otherwise have been the case, to facilitate the passage of steamers to the dark Sound of Mull, and the barren desolation of Loch Corriskin. As he wrote and wrote on, each stroke of the pen set fresh fountains of prosperity flowing. The shopkeepers did brisker business; the boatmen of the western seas, the highlanders in remote glens, which had seldom been trodden by a stranger's foot, the superabundant population of struggling villages, found new and lucrative sources of emolument. Many an aged man and woman, like Johnnie Bower of Melrose, had reason to bless him for being installed as guardian of some ruined abbey or castle, which, being identified with the historical or fanciful sketches in the novels, had sprung of a sudden into world-wide celebrity, and acquired actual value in the eyes of its possessor. The influence of the magician had extended everywhere, from the Solway of "Redgauntlet" to the Shetlands of "The Pirate,"—through France and Switzerland to Syria, as over England.

He has done as much for the antiquities and history of Scotland as for its material progress. He made himself the Old Mortality of the neglected memorials of the past. As for the antiquities, we need not dwell upon them. We may not be able actually to identify Tully-Veolan, Tillietudlem or Kennaquhair; in fact, Scott has assured us himself, when denying that Wolf's Craig was the Fast Castle he had only seen from the sea, that he never copied but always conceived. Yet where, out of his pages, shall we find such vivid pictures of the buildings "biggit by the monks of auld lang syne," when the first Alexander was a "sair saint for the crown;" of the prehistoric relics of heathenism in the sterile northern isles; of the rude but massive baronial architecture, when each noble's hand was against his neighbor; and of the bastioned and battlemented Scoto-Gallic mansion, still secured in its sombre strength against the raids of caterans or old feudal enemies?

The blaze of light he threw upon Scottish history is even more important and valuable. We venture to say that before he wrote the romances and "Tales of a Grandfather," intelligent Southrons cared as little about it as we do now about the obscure and sanguinary records of mediæval Servians or Bulgarians. We doubt not that Macaulay has depicted with an unusual absence of highflying rhetoric, the indifference even of thoughtful English statesmen to Scottish affairs, when ministers were accomplices in the massacre of Glencoe. The fierce yet chivalrous warfare of the Percy and the Douglas, the bloody fray of the Otterburn, and the hard-contested battle of Neville's Cross, had been commemorated in song and ballad; the memorable fields of Bannockburn and Flodden stood out and were remembered for sufficient reasons. Otherwise the records reveal a monotonously dreary tale of intestine broils and brutal outrages. So in a great measure they were. But it was for Scott to paint a gallery of grand historical portraits, with the firm hand and rare intuition of a master. Like those of a Titian

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or a Velasquez, the portraits live and breathe. They begin with the inevitably dim, though strikingly effective, sketches of William the Lion and his heir in "The Talisman." The "Lord of the Isles" gave us the Bruce, with the gallant band of patriots who followed his desperate fortunes in the war of Liberation. There are few nobler pictures in dramatic poetry than that of the royal outlaw in the halls of Ardtornish, standing at bay before bared dirks and half-drawn broad-swords, confessing the crime of the hasty murder of the Comyn to the monk, who rose to curse but was constrained to bless.

The gentler side of the heroic character is equally realized by that vivid fancy, when Isabel recognizes by the description of the unlettered lay-sister, the stranger who has come knocking at the convent door. Then there are the monarchs of the ill-fated line of Stuart, pre-ordained to bring a long train of calamities on their people, and destined to pay the penalty of grievous faults. The weak and well-meaning Robert, "second of that name," the Knight of Snowdon, the Scottish Quixote; the James of Flodden, who risked a kingdom for a passing fancy and a royal glove; the hapless Mary in her island prison, reaping in tears the harvest she had sown in folly and perhaps in crime; her "pawky" son, the British Solomon, with his sage saws and ludicrous eccentricities, his "bonny sparklers" of price, and his bowls of cockaleekie. Then, after a passing glance, in which there is a world of character-revelation, at King Charles the Martyr, we end with the inimitable sketches of Charles the Voluptuous, with his spaniels in the Mall, and of Charles Edward, the high-spirited young chevalier, enthroned for an hour in the halls of Holyrood.

There are the soldiers and the statesmen, most faithfully drawn from familiar acquaintance with the times and their chronicles. These may be said to begin with "The Abbot" and "The Monastery." There are the Regent Murray and his crafty ally, the politic Morton, the rude Lord Lyndsay and the more polished Ruthven, "the smoother and deeper traitor." There are "the great Marquis" and the other Graham of Claverhouse, for whom Scott owned an unphilosophical and unreasoned partiality, as his portrait, the only one in the room, had the place of honor on the chimney-piece, in the little library in Castle Street, Edinburgh. We see Lauderdale, lolling over the Council Board, with his sensual mouth and swollen tongue, when the Hill folk were going through the great tribulation. But, indeed, there is hardly a historical figure, conspicuous or picturesque, which is not dashed somewhere on to the canvas that stretches through the centuries.

Still more striking from the artistic point of view are the types of classes, for there the realistic imagination found freer scope. "The Fair Maid of Perth" was written when the writer's health had utterly broken down; when his publishers, Cadell and Ballantyne, were continually worrying him with protests against the careless "copy" he sent in; when he was depressed with the sense of impending failure and when the delights of brilliantly spontaneous invention had changed to painful drudgery. Yet what can be more impressively dramatic than the personalities grouped round the feeble king? The prodigal Rothsay, with his natural nobility of character, spoiled in the upbringing; the cold-blooded Robin of Albany, regardless of all but criminal ambition; the terrible Black Douglas, whose ride through the streets of Perth was "followed by men's eyes as they pursue the flight of the eagle through the clouds;" the false, fleeting, perjured, blue-eyed George of March, who held the keys of the East Marches in his strong castle of Dunbar; the boyish tiger-cub who was to "rule Strathmore with the absolute power and unrelenting cruelty of a feudal tyrant;" the intriguing Ramsay, as conscienceless as Albany, who, though chronologically he comes after them in the sequence of the novels, was the prototype of Varney, Dalgarno, and Rashleigh Osbaldistone. Or we may take, as companion sketches, the scenes of a later date, when law and centralization had in some measure asserted themselves, when civilization and trade had made a certain progress, but when the feuds of the baronial houses were fierce as ever, and manners had scarcely mended or softened.

In the Scotland of the wars of Kingsmen and Queensmen, the Protestant nobles, who would carry matters with a high hand as before, were only curbed by the growing power of the clergy and

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the influence of the reformed ministers over their fanatical flocks, for, with the liberation of consciences and the revolt against Rome, the democracy has been realizing its strength, and foreign politics must be considered by the Regent and his advisers. We see it all at a glance, in the conversations of Murray and Morton at Holyrood, or when they were riding southward to the Halidome, to repel the English raid; in the shifting for a living of Julian Avenel with the handful of mosstroopers in his island fortalice, who, trusting to the defences of water and morass, will, like Basil Olifant in "Old Morality," "turn cat-in-the-pan with any man;" in the visit of the delegates of the Lords of the Congregation to Loch Leven; and in the stormy councils held round the liberated captive by the Catholic peers, when mustering for the decisive field of Langside.

Lockhart has said justly in the "Life," that there was no such portrayer of national manners. There is no disputing that. If we contrast Scott with the most brilliant writers of the French school, we can only acknowledge his incontestable superiority. Dumas possibly rivalled him in sparkling and striking historical portraiture. His "Impressions de Voyage" abound in traits of the characters he professes to have come across, in lively anecdote and in life-like touches. But they give us little impression of reality. We know that he trusted much to the imagination, which saved him an infinity of trouble. We constantly catch him tripping as to facts, and we know that he wrote his "Sinai," as an Oriental traveller, without having visited the Arabian Peninsula. Moreover, most French writers who have attained to eminence in letters have either been trained between the Boulevards, the Bourse, and the Salons, or have endeavored to present themselves as acclimatized there.

Balzac, like Dumas, was essentially Parisian. His grand "Comédie Humaine," with all its subtle and incisive analysis, smells of the lamp, the microscope, and the human anatomical schools. He stimulated his genius in chambered seclusion with black coffee, and the sensuously suggestive surroundings of rich hangings and Oriental carpets. As for Zola, the great contemporary apostle of naturalism, it is easy to take the measure of the man. Though he prides himself on being the *bon bourgeois*, he ought to know something of the rural districts and their inhabitants. But his cynicism surpasses the cynicism of Balzac; he goes peering about the provincial towns and the farms like a shortsighted sanitary commissioner with a monomania; he revels in exposition of the plague-spots; and the grossness of "La Terre" is redolent of the dung-heap which dowers the daughter of the farmer of the Beauce. We see much of the same thing in George Sand, attached as she was to her native Sologne, and though not a few of her rural romances, like "La Mare d'Auteuil," are simple, touching, and charming.

But when we turn to Scott, how exhilarating is the change! We leave the artificial fragrance of pastiles, or the foul odors of city top-dressings, for the bracing air of the sea and the moors; and we feel that all the sketches and studies are taken freshly from nature; that he never idealizes *à la* Rousseau and "La Nouvelle Héloise." We shall have something to say of his system of work, but in a sentence or two of his own he communicates his secret; and after all it was no secret, for it is sufficiently obvious. He had undertaken the delicate feat of reviewing his "Tales of my Landlord" for the "Quarterly Review"; it is believed that his friend, Lord Kinedder, collaborated, but the manuscript is in Scott's handwriting. He had been severe on himself in many respects, before penning the following passages of praise, which he saw and approved, though possibly they may have been interpolated by Erskine:—

"The volume which this author has studied is the great book of Nature. He has gone abroad into the world, in quest of what the world will certainly and abundantly supply, but what a man of great discrimination alone will find, and a man of the very highest genius will only depict after he has discovered it. The characters of Shakespeare are not more exclusively human, as they live and move, than those of this mysterious author."

Under the mask of the anonymous, it was a frank and eloquent self-vindication against charges brought against him by the critics. Eminent reviewers misconstrued or failed to understand him, and even Jeffrey had staggered the Scot *par excellence* by condemning the author of "Marmion" for lack of patriotism.

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But Scott was the most searching critic of them all. He possessed the rare and precious quality of being aware of his own weaknesses and rejoicing in his own strength. We believe we scarcely realize how much we are indebted to the just, but not over-weening, self-confidence which fired his fancies and winged his pen, which triumphied over sickness and bodily agony, and which set calamity and despondency doggedly at defiance. We can detect here and there the evidences of temporary collapse; but though the task of the day might be comparative failure, he relied on pulling himself together on the morrow. So the work of each morning was thrown off almost mechanically, and the packet for the Edinburgh coach was carelessly tossed out at the toll-gate as he drove with some guests in his carriage to do the honors of Melrose or Dryburgh.

"He was making himself all the time," said his worthy friend Shortreed, who was his guide and companion in many a rollicking expedition in wheelless Liddesdale—*vide* "Guy Mannering"—and among the hospitable Dandie Dinmonts in wilder glens of the Borderland. In fact, he had hit upon his veritable vocation when he was a child of a few years' old. Sent for his health to a summer *villegiatura* at Musselburgh, the future author of "Waverley" was already gathering materials for the novels. In after-life, as he said, he could converse easily with everybody, except his own domestic servants. He quoted with sympathetic approval his friend Clerk's burst of annoyance, when after having tried a fellow-passenger on an infinity of subjects, he demanded at last, if there was anything he could talk about, and was answered: "Can you say anything about bend-leather?" Scott would have made something of the bend-leather, as no doubt he discussed fancy wares with the stout old toy woman who travelled with him when he went to meet the Duke of Wellington at Ravensworth. At Musselburgh the crippled and somewhat old-fashioned child, but ever with quicksilver in his veins and irrepressible bodily and intellectual activity, had made fast friends of sundry elderly gentlemen who were as willing to talk as he to listen. There he found one of the various prototypes of "The Antiquary," and of the pedantic soldier of fortune he immortalized in "The Legend of Montrose." The fisher-folk who put out on the "barmy" Firth in their cobbles, the men who patched their broken nets on the shore, and the women who tramped with their creels to Edinburgh, were afterwards to be brought in with rare fidelity on the pages of "The Antiquary." His excellent father, the elder Fairford, had intended the boy to succeed him in his business. The lameness suggested sedentary pursuits. Scott, who was subsequently to entangle himself in the unhappy Ballantyne affairs, drudged at the copying of law-papers for twopence a page; "the pay was of importance," as he had ever an eye to the main chance, and moreover it enabled him to indulge in the purchase of books. He might have been less patient had he been always confined to the office.

In those days there was no little of adventure, even in the routine of apprenticeship in a law office to a Writer to the Signet. The King's writ only ran in the Highlands, when backed up by a show of military force. Scott accompanied a sergeant's party through the passes of Perthshire, which must have suggested the scenes when Captain Thornton was guided by the Dougal creature from the Clachan of Aberfoil into the country of Rob Roy. "'Twas some fifty years" since those lochs and hills had seen the tribesmen streaming down from their glens to follow the standard of the Chevalier. The lad made acquaintance with Inverhyle, who was the veritable Baron of Bradwardine. The old laird was eloquent of the reminiscences transmuted into the gold of "Waverley," and so we have the origin of the first of the novels, which lay forgotten and neglected among fishing tackle, till recovered and completed by the most felicitous of accidents.

And so it was, that the most sociable of men, with the gift of getting at the best of his companions in the most cursory conversation, went on accumulating the invaluable material, which, sooner or later, was to be turned to his purposes. Before ever he had broken ground in fiction, the memory and imagination were filled to overflowing. When the unflagging facility of the most prolific writer of the day was the marvel of guests at Abbotsford, who always found him at their disposal, Basil Hall worked out the problem of the actual manual labo

statistically, and suggests the explanation. But, indeed, Scott when questioned on the subject, was unaffectedly ready with a satisfactory answer. He was always working and seldom working. When strolling through his plantations, or felling trees with Tom Purdie, his thoughts were gone far astray in old-world recollections. His scenes would shape themselves in the brain, like the plates of a camera, ready for reproduction, though the fancies of the moment would take irresistible course and he could never keep to a preconceived plot.

If there were a tangled knot he would trust to untying it as he lay meditating in bed, before rising of a morning. "I had many a grand gallop in those braes when thinking of 'Marmion,'" he remarked to Lockhart, "though a canny trotting pony must serve me now." The great poet and romancer lived ever in a double world, at once the most practical and the most imaginative of men. Then when he was seated at his desk, the ideas flowed spontaneously, and so swiftly that, as John Ballantyne learned when writing to dictation, the mind was often working two sentences ahead, and a second train of thought was anticipating and intermingling with its predecessor. Creations that were rather inspired reminiscences came at his call, stamping men and manners indelibly on his pages with the touches of character and the turns of speech which impress us irresistibly with their truth and vitality.

As he said himself, in the letters to his son, he had lived with all ranks in society. At Abbotsford for many years he kept open house for every Englishman or foreigner who crossed the border and came recommended by fame, talent or rank. In London he was lionized. The Regent in consultation with Croker got up little dinners for "Walter" at Carlton House, and among the coteries of statesmen, judges, and divines, special parties were arranged to see and hear him, so that, as Lockhart observes, the guest of the day seldom saw London society in its easier and more agreeable aspects. Scott moved in these unfamiliar circles as an amused spectator and student of men, but he was scarcely of them. His sympathies were little stirred, his interests were not greatly excited by the stereotyped, the artificial or the frivolous, or even by types of the higher order which did not lend themselves to the picturesque. He genially ridicules some of the noble strangers he entertained, and when writing of the descent of Mrs. Coutts and the Duke of St. Albans, with their suite and train of coaches, he is characteristically more interested in the little horsey captain in attendance, whose costume has the cut of Newmarket and who can talk of nothing but the turf.

He owns that in the novel of "St. Ronan's Well," next to his reluctant alteration of the *motif*, the great shortcoming was the failure in depicting the fashionables of the Spa. His strength lay in representing the picturesque varieties of the lower orders of his countrymen, the respectable class in which he had been born and brought up, and the lawyers and landed gentry who were his familiar companions. His was no superficial observation; he showed the most penetrating insight into the springs by which human nature is actuated. The very reverse of a cynic, he was as searching an analyst as Balzac. Take a striking example given by himself in the "Quarterly" article. Writing under the veil of the anonymous, he says: "The author's knowledge of human nature is well illustrated in the last glimpse he gives us of an early acquaintance, Jenny Dennison." Jenny is presented as the coquettish Scottish *soubrette*, hesitating between her two admirers, the gay and seductive Trooper Tam of the Lifeguards, and Cuddie Headrigg, the "old-fashioned Scotch boor, sly and shrewd in his own concerns."

Like many of her social superiors, Cuddie chooses the more prudent course: she marries for money and bestows her hand on the stolid ploughman who had a stake in the soil and a foot in its furrows. Though weighted with the cares of housekeeping and maternity, we might have expected that the giddy girl grew up into a feather-brained matron, that something of the old light-hearted sentimentality would have still survived, and that in a delicate case of sensational surprise, it would have been the sober Cuddie who would have steadied his helpmate. We know how she acted when the mysterious stranger sought a night's lodging at Fairy Knowe. Scott's position has been assailed, but never successfully. To our advantage, he explains his attitude. "Every one must have observed that

coquetry, whether in high or low life, is always founded on intense selfishness, which, as age advances, always shows itself in its true colors, and vanity gives way to avarice; and with perfect truth of representation."

Like Shakespeare, he had the instinctive power of intellectual creation, and where the studies come within the range of his immediate observation, they are truthful beyond denial and almost beyond belief. "Jupiter" Carlyle, Ramsay of Ochtertyre, Lord Cockburn and others have left valuable memorials of the men and manners of their periods. They go to confirm the exactness of Scott, but he has given life and lasting color to the pictures. We have the Parliament House of the Scottish capital, when all the pleadings were drawn with pen and ink, when the aristocratic bench was a close corporation, when old Lord Bladderskate scowled on the humbly born Alan Fairford, who had taken over the brief of his prodigal nephew, and when, as the douce Provost of Dumfries, remarked to Alan: "The bits o' messan doggies would be sair put to the wall, if more of the muckle tykes were brought in by the relaxation of oaths."

We also see Pleydell, pronounced by Dominie Sampson "a man of great erudition, though he descendeth to trifles unbeseeming thereof," giving himself over to high jinks in the foul-smelling tavern, but declining Mannering's invitation to the venison, on the score of press of business, to which he was scrupulously attentive. Pleydell tugged at the oar through the week, like any Algerian galley-slave, but took his revenge in the coarse revelry of a Saturday at e'en, ready to rise and go to chapel on Sunday morning. We see old Fairford, well to pass in the world, in spotless broadcloth, linen, and ruffles, punctual to a minute in his morning attendance at the courts, yet hand-in-glove, in a patronizing fashion with Peter Drudgeit, who dived into "the Cimmerian abysses of John's Coffee House" for his daily meridian at the hour of noon.

There also are the highland chiefs of an extinct generation, before they were educated at Eton or Harrow and made fashionable friends at the English universities—Sir James Macdonald of Sleat was an exception—when if hereditary sheriffships were suppressed, and they had no longer the rights of pit and gallows, they still lorded it over tenants and clansmen, with patriarchal autocracy through immemorial custom. There were the lairds of every kind and degree, from the sottish Balmawhapple and the maundering Ellangowan to the bookish Monkbarns—a *rara avis*—and Jack Mowbray of St. Ronan's, who, conscious that he cut a better figure at Leith races than on Newmarket Heath, consoled himself by telling his confident and family lawyer that better dogs were bred in the kitchen than in the parlor. The lower the great novelist descends in the social scale, the more effectively humorous or pathetic are the sketches, and for very obvious reasons. The lives of peril, privation, or endurance were necessarily more simple, natural, and earnest. We might multiply illustrations at will, yet it is scarcely needful to cite examples.

Is there anything more impressive in the pages of fiction than the passionate grief of the rugged Saunders Mucklebackit over the death of his favorite son and staunch comrade, which startled even the termagant goodwife into silence and timid observance? Was another rugged character ever drawn more delicately than that of Dandie Dinmont, who was willing to try conclusions as to the marches with broadswords, if his counsellor did not think it would be against the law, but who was loth to wrong even Jock o' Dawston Cleugh, camsteery chiel as he was, by taking a led farm over his head? Or could a lady of the gentlest birth and breeding have surpassed that hesitating delicacy of Ailie, when casting about how she might repay their debt of gratitude to the captain? Burns himself, in the "Cotter's Saturday Night," never sang the praise of a happy rural homestead more sympathetically, for Scott's prose in scenes of the sort really runs into the deeper poetry.* The rustic tales of the Ettrick Shepherd, though Hogg was a man of genius and peasant-born, are nowhere in comparison, and Galt, whom Scott praised, with all his "pawky" talent, seems but Britannia metal when we contrast him with the refined silver.

[To be Continued.]

*See "The Homes and Haunts of Sir Walter Scott," by George G. Napier, M. A., author of "The Homes and Haunts of Tennyson," profusely and richly illustrated. 8vo. $10.00, 1897.

LIEUT. PEARY ON ARCTIC EXPLORATION

A RECEPTION was recently given in London to Lieut. R. E. Peary, of the United States Navy, by the Royal Geographical Society, at which the distinguished Arctic explorer explained his plans for continuing his explorations in northern Greenland, preliminary to making "a dash" for the Pole. Lieut. Peary opened his address to the Society by observing that Arctic exploration was a subject in which the English-speaking peoples had been interested for centuries. Speaking of Greenland, which we had explored now for over ten years, he said that there were few who had any real conception of what the country was like. To-day Greenland has no interior; it is simply a great white snow-shield, an African Sahara, compared with which the African is insignificant. On the surface of that frozen area the traveller sees but three things in all the world outside his own party—an infinite expanse of snow, an infinite expanse of sky, and the stars. He gave a graphic account of the difficulties and privations the party underwent in the attempt to push northwards across the ice in connection with the Expedition of 1893, and mentioned how they returned to headquarters with one dog alive.

One thing of interest to glacialists that Lieut. Peary mentioned was the transportation of snow by the wind, which was almost always blowing there. Coming to more recent expeditions, he referred to his location of the famous iron mountain of Sir John Ross, with its nuggets of iron, one weighing about 1,000 lbs., and another about 6,000 lbs. In one case the size of the nugget could not be determined, because it was buried in the ground. By means of this treasure of iron an entire tribe had been enabled to pass from the stone to the iron age. They were able to distinguish these masses of iron from stone, to know what their capabilities were, and they devised the means of utilizing them. In regard to the result of these expeditions, on his return in 1895 it came to be driven in upon him that the capabilities of Greenland ice as a means of getting north were exhausted, and he then formulated a plan for further work in case the problem of the North had not been solved by the time he returned.

With the return of Jackson and Nansen he felt that the time had arrived to present his project for the continuation of Polar exploration. The fact that there seemed to be no land of considerable extent anywhere in the southern segment of the Polar basin seemed to eliminate that region from further consideration as a possible means of reaching the Pole. Accordingly, he had formed the plan of advancing to Sherard Osborn Fiord, in 82 degrees North latitude, in a ship manned by the smallest possible crew, and, having taken on board eight or ten picked Eskimo who had promised to accompany him on the enterprise, he would land the people and stores and send back the ship. He knew, he said, every man, woman, and child of the entire tribe. He would take the most effective young men in the tribe, the most loyal and energetic drivers, with their sledges, their canoes, their weapons, all their belongings, and transport them to the furthest possible point. There he should establish a colony, a settlement which should be normal, just like an ordinary settlement, only 200 or 300 miles further north than ever they had been before. Sledging parties would advance supplies northeastward along the coast by short, comfortable distances of 25 or 30 miles, distances if possible that could be made in a day. He should continue that operation until the most northerly point of land was reached, wherever that might be. They knew that there was land there up to within 360 miles of the Pole.

Having wintered at this most northerly point, Lieut. Peary stated in conclusion, that he would then, perhaps in February or March, start with two or more still further selected people, and endeavor to make the distance to the Pole and back again by what some might call "a dash." If there was unbroken sea ice from that most northerly point to the Pole, the journey might be accomplished in three or four months. Men could travel in that region and keep in good condition for a length of time. Suppose the ice was impracticable, what then? In that case he would return to his Eskimo colony, spend the winter there, and wait till the next spring. If the conditions were not favorable the second year, he would come back and start again the third, and so on. He was prepared to wait four or five years, if necessary. He believed that at one season or another the door was open or could be opened, and the man who was in a favorable position to open it would get where he wanted.

The spirit of this passage in Lieutenant Peary's address augurs well for the fulfilment of the great task he purposes to undertake. It is the spirit which has marked all heroic achievement, and is of the quality which the adventurous explorer has already exhibited in his earlier expeditions, especially in his hazardous attempt, on two trying occasions, to reach Independence Bay and the high latitudes of the 82nd parallel. Whatever may be the issue of his new venture, Lieutenant Peary has already done much for geographical knowledge, and from the neighborhood of Bowdon Bay, in the Eskimo highlands, has recovered much to enrich our home ethnological collections.

G.M.A.

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FOLK-LORE — THE FOURTEENTH OF FEBRUARY

THE good old customs which warmed the hearts, and delighted our grandfathers and great-grandfathers, are rapidly passing away into the limbo of neglect and disuse. As the festival days came round, in those times of the long ago, men and maids vied with one another in observing, with due formality, the great event of the month. The flitch of bacon is but a dream now. But for Burns and his hold on Scottish character, Halloween would be a dream too. New Year's calls have gone out of fashion, and though Twelfth night, with cakes and ale as accompaniments, is still celebrated in some parts of England, its glory, too, has departed. The small French Canadian hamlets afford pleasure to the worshippers at the shrine of good St. Catherine, and Shrove Tuesday and its pancakes have not quite lost their charm. Christmas will always remain with us, the grand festival of all Christian nations, for reasons which will, at once, occur to the reader.

Within the memory of the middle-aged, St. Valentine's Day was "kept" pretty well. To be one's Valentine forty years ago, was a privilege indeed, if the maid was fair and young. Twice that number of years ago, many a duel was fought by gallants, the woman in the case being always the Valentine, who had accepted or rejected the suitor's plea for her hand. To-day, we smile at all this, and wonder at the sentimentality of the beaux, and the remarkable influences which the 14th day of February brought to bear on their susceptible hearts. We who have witnessed the gradual passing of St. Valentine's day, perhaps, with just a little soupçon of regret, can remember with what a tremor the sound of the door-knocker was heard in many a household. The door-bell was just beginning to come into vogue, but the big brass or iron knocker was all the fashion, and on St. Valentine's Day it could not be lifted and dropped too often. The swains spent small fortunes then, in valentines, all aglow with cupids and hearts stabbed with arrows, fresh from the love-god's quiver. These were delicately perfumed with Turkey's sweetest scent, packed in pretty boxes, covered with paper lace, rivalling the daintiest products of Valenciennes, and neatly tied with white satin ribbon.

The ardent lover, of course, was careful not to trust this proof of his attachment to the ruthless hands of post-office clerks and letter carriers. To them, for transmission, might be left the comic favors, coarse prints with vulgar doggerel, which often sent pangs of pain to the hearts of the old maids who received them. This pain was intensified when the postage was unpaid, and, alas, such was too frequently the case. No, the young beau was too clever by half to take risks. He always employed a messenger lad, and followed him to the house where dwelt the apple of his eye. Then dodging behind a corner, he watched with no little trepidation, the handing in at the door of his token of undying affection. Did she, the youth's dulcinea, know from whom this particular valentine came?—one out of perhaps a score or half a score of white boxes and white satin ribbon and paper lace, so much like real Valenciennes that no one but an expert could tell the difference, certainly, no one in love on St. Valentine's Day of past and dead years, could tell! Did she know the sender? There never was a mark or an initial which could tell the tale. But, all the same, in her heart she knew who had so gracefully remembered her, and when he called that evening,—this was forty years ago, recollect,—the valentine was very much *en evidence*. Before the small hours were reached, and certain confidences exchanged, she was his valentine and he was hers.

No one remembers precisely, when the custom began of observing the natal day of that pious bishop,—beheaded by his enemies,—whose remains rest in the church of St. Praxedes at Rome. Perhaps, after all, he was not the author of the observances which bear his name. Douce, the Shakespearian commentator, has looked into the question, and gives it as his opinion, that "it was the practice in ancient Rome, during a great part of the month of February, to celebrate the Lupercalia, which were feasts in honor of Pan and Juno, whence the latter

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deity was named Februata, Februalis, and Februlla." On this occasion, amidst a variety of ceremonies, the names of young women were put into a box, from which they were drawn by the men as chance directed. The pastors of the early Christian church, who, by every possible means, endeavored to eradicate the vestiges of pagan superstitions, and chiefly by some commutations of their forms, substituted, in the present instance, the names of particular saints instead of those of the women; and as the festival of Lupercalia had commenced about the middle of February, they appear to have chosen St. Valentine's Day for celebrating the new feast, because it occurred nearly at the same time. This is, in part, the opinion of a learned and rational compiler of the "Lives of the Saints," the Rev. Alban Butler. It would seem, however, that it was utterly impossible to extirpate altogether any ceremony to which the common people had been much accustomed — a fact which it were easy to prove in tracing the origin of various other popular superstitions. And, accordingly, the outline of the ancient ceremonies was preserved, but modified by some adaptation to the Christian system. It is reasonable to suppose that the above practice of choosing mates would gradually become reciprocal in the sexes, and that all persons so chosen would be called valentines, from the day on which the ceremony took place.

So much for history and investigation. From time to time the day deepened into the affections of the people. The poets, historians, and novelists have dealt tenderly with the festival, the works of the Scottish and English authors being particularly rich in song and story, in its honor and glory. Shakespeare and Chaucer have immortalized St. Valentine's Day, and Sir Walter Scott wrote a long novel, one of the Chronicles of the Canongate, as a tribute of his appreciation of its romantic characters. It is in this striking story,—"The Fair Maid of Perth, or St. Valentine's Day,"— that the sturdy but kind-hearted and generous armorer, Henry Smith, in his quality of valentine provides for his lady-love, Catherine Glover, the devoted pupil of Father Clement, this pretty gift, which is thus described by the wizard: "A small ruby cut into the form of a heart, transfixed with a golden arrow, and enclosed in a small purse made of links of the finest work in steel, as if it had been designed for a hauberk to a king. Round the verge of the purse were these words:

"Love's darts
Cleave hearts
Through mail shirts."

In verse, we have many examples. Lydgate, who died four centuries and a half ago, knew his valentine well, and many a snatch appropriate to the day came from the hand of Charles, Duc D'Orleans, conspicuously valorous at Agincourt, where he was taken prisoner by the English archers. The bard of Avon's contemporary, Drayton, has left us some lines, which begin thus: —

"Muse, bid the morn awake,
Sad winter now declines,
Each bird doth choose a mate,
This day's St. Valentine's:
For that good bishop's sake
Get up, and let us see
What beauty it shall be
That fortune us assigns."

And thus ends the poem dedicated to St. Valentine:—

"Each little bird, this tide,
Doth choose her loved peer,
Which constantly abide
In wedlock all the year,
As Nature is her guide:
So may we two be true
This year, nor change for new,
As turtles coupled were.

"Let's laugh at them that choose
These valentines by lot;
To wear their names that use,
Whom idly they have got.
Such poor choice we refuse,
Saint Valentine befriend;
We thus this morn may spend,
Else, Muse, awake her not."

From the treasures of English letters, hundreds of quotations could easily be excerpted. Love, of course, forms the basis of all of them, and from St. Valentine's Day love is inseparable. In the olden times, the lovers gave their mistresses gifts of value or of affection on St. Valentine's Day. Husbands thought of their wives on that day, too. Thus, we find in that delicious old gossip's diary, the ever-delightful Pepys, this entry on St. Valentine's Day, 1667: —

"This morning came up to my wife's bedside (I being up dressing myself) little Will Mercer to be her valentine, and brought her name written upon blue paper in gold letters, done by himself, very pretty; and we were both well

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pleased with it. But I am also this year my wife's Valentine, and it will cost me £5; but that I must have laid out if we had not been valentines." A couple of days afterwards, he adds: — "I find that Mrs. Pierce's little girl is my valentine, she having drawn me: which I am not sorry for, it easing me of something more that I must have given to others." (Frugal to the last, oh, good Pepys!) "But here I do first observe the fashion of drawing mottoes as well as names, so that Pierce, who drew my wife, did draw also a motto, and this girl drew another for me. What mine was, I forget; but my wife's was 'most courteous and most fair,' which, as it may be used as an anagram upon each name, might be very pretty." Noticing, soon afterwards, the jewels of the celebrated Miss Stuart, who became Duchess of Richmond, he says: "The Duke of York, being once her valentine, did give her a jewel of about £800; and my Lord Mandeville, her valentine this year, a ring of about £300."

To enjoy the esteem of a valentine in those days cost something, and, certainly, the young ladies in the high circles of society, and the helpmeets of uxorious husbands, must have fared sumptuously. Gifts, gifts, many of them of great value, were their portion at the recurrence of every St. Valentine's day. Thus do we hear from King Charles the Second's indefatigable Secretary of the Navy again, this time under date February, 1668: — "This evening my wife did with great pleasure shew me her stock of jewels, increased by the ring she hath made lately, as my valentine's gift this year, a Turkey-stone set with diamonds. With this, and what she had, she reckons that she hath above one hundred and fifty pounds worth of jewels of one kind or other; and I am glad of it, for it is fit the wretch should have something to content herself with." Of course, wretch, in this sense, was meant as a term of endearment.

The "Connoisseur," by Mr. Town, Critic and Censor-General, published in London during the years 1754–56, and forming part of that remarkable series of British essayists, edited by Alexander Chalmers, F. S. A., in a paper on Superstitions in Love, tells a good story of a country girl, in this wise: — "Last Friday was Valentine's Day, and the night before, I got five bay-leaves, and pinned four of them to the four corners of my pillow, and the fifth to the middle; and then I dreamt of my sweetheart. Betty said we should be married before the year was out. But to make it more sure, I boiled an egg hard, and took out the yolk and filled it with salt; and when I went to bed, ate it, shell and all, without speaking or drinking after it. We also wrote our lovers' names upon bits of paper, and rolled them up in clay and put them into water; and the first one that rose up was to be our valentine. Would you think of it? — Mr. Blossom was my man. I lay a-bed and shut my eyes all the morning, till he came to our house, for I would not have seen another man before him for all the world."

It was another superstition that the first unmarried person of the other sex whom one met on St. Valentine's morning, in walking abroad, was a destined wife or a destined husband, all unfailing signs, as one may well believe. Gay makes one of his heroines say: —

"Last Valentine, the day when birds of kind
Their paramours with mutual chirpings find,
I early rose just at the break of day,
Before the sun had chased the stars away;
A-field I went, amid the morning dew,
To milk my kine (for so should housewives do).
Thee first I spied — and the first swain we see,
In spite of Fortune shall our true love be."

Ah, gentle, old St. Valentine's Day, with thy sweet messages and messengers of love, how has thy renown departed! No place in modern life has been found for thee. The Christmas card has not taken the hold on ambitious youth which thou didst once exert, and even the Christmas card is disappearing before the prosaic march of utilitarianism. But right merry were thy early days, and this generation knows thee only as a memory, albeit, a very pleasant memory, which carries with it its own delight. St. Valentine presents his gifts no more.

GEORGE STEWART, LL. D.

Professor Rhys and Mr. Brynmor Jones have written a series of essays on the history, antiquities, ancient laws and customs, and the social characteristics of Wales, for issue early in the present year by a London publisher. The volume will be entitled "The Welsh People." The same publisher also promises at an early date "The Story of Wales," by Mr. Owen M. Edwards, Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford, forming the new volume of the "Stories of the Nations" series. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)

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THE LATE ALPHONSE DAUDET, THE FRENCH NOVELIST

THE death of the younger of the two brothers Daudet, on the 16th December last, is a distinct loss to French literature. Alphonse Daudet possessed, in a special degree, the romantic qualities characteristic of the Gallic race, added to the temperamental warmth and flavor of his native Provence, the home of his early youth. Of modern French writers he enjoyed in France a vogue second only to Victor Hugo and Balzac; while among English-speaking peoples he had an immense popularity, due chiefly to his poetic temperament, artistic instincts, and delicate humor. Doubtless his obligations to Dickens, and the qualities of heart and brain, which he possessed in common with the author of "David Copperfield" and "Dombey and Son," were graces in Daudet which appealed strongly to the American and English mind. But Daudet, though obviously influenced by Dickens, was no mere imitator, for he had a strong vein of originality and satiric force, coupled with a creative power and gift of observation and genial reflection essentially his own. He was, moreover, artist enough to avoid the pitfalls into which modern French writers of fiction have too often fallen in their frenzied eagerness to be realistic. This kept him from descending into the sewers and abounding foul places for types of squalid humanity, a proclivity which disgusts the English reader with Zola and causes the clean-minded to turn with repulsion from writers of the modern realistic school.

And yet Daudet is not altogether free from the Parisian taint, as we unhappily see in his "Sappho," though it is the exception to find him impure or portraying with any gusto the company of courtesans or other unwholesome examples of modern city life. Where we best enjoy him is in his amusing satires on the natives of Southern France — in the Tartarin series — and in such pathetic revelations, doubtless in part autobiographical, as he has given us in "Jack," and in the charming earlier study, which established his fame with his own countrymen, entitled "Le Petit Chose" [A Little Chap]. To be enjoyed, especially, are the works of the type of "Jack," which reveal the delightfully human aspects of life, and lead one to see, as it has been expressed, that there are tears in Daudet's laughter and a strain of laughter in his tears, with a note of music in both.

Alphonse Daudet was born in humble circumstances at Nimes, May 13, 1840, and was educated at the Lyons Lycée. When he left the latter, he for a time became an under-teacher in a school at Alais, the unpleasant experiences of which he narrates in "Les Gueux de Provence." Giving up his ushership, he came at the age of seventeen with his brother Ernest to Paris, where both entered the service of the Duc de Morny, whose portrait the younger brother has sketched in "The Nabob." Soon both young men took to journalism, with occasional ventures in authorcraft, Alphonse's first literary attempts taking the form of verse. "Les Amoureuses," published in 1858, brought him into public notice and gained him connection with the chief Parisian journals, notably with "Figaro," and with the principal metropolitan theatres, for which he wrote plays. His hold on the Parisian public was firmly established by his entertaining "Lettres de mon Moulin" (Letters from my Mill), which were collected in 1869, and at once fascinated readers by their happy fancies and fitful musings. The Tartarin vagaries began in 1872 and were carried through three volumes with inimitable drollery, interlarded with quaint bits of wisdom and rich reflection. Then followed in rapid succession "Fromont jeune et Risler ainé," a study of the Parisian *bourgeoisie;* the attractive but depressing story of "Jack," and the two volumes that deal with the Third Empire — "The Nabob," and "Kings in Exile."

These works were followed by "Numa Roumestan," a strong dramatic novel, the fruit of much thought and bitter experience of life, lit up, nevertheless, by pleasant gleams of sunshine and cheery philosophy. Afterwards came "Sappho," with its sensuousness and strained effort towards realism; 'L'Évangéliste," a study of religious fanaticism from the ranks of the Salvation Army; and "L'Immortel," a

trenchant but splenetic attack on the French Academy, owing to its rejection from seats among the literary immortals of the author's friends and fellow-craftsmen — Balzac, Gautier, Flaubert, and the brothers De Goncourt. Besides these various productions, Daudet wrote "La Belle Nivernaise," and a work of a reminiscent and personal character, entitled "Trente ans de Paris," together with a number of plays, none of which, however, if we except perhaps the stage adaptation of "Sappho," gained more than a passing success. A new story, "Soutien de Famille," at present being issued in serial form, was the last work upon which Daudet was engaged when death's sudden and imperious summons came to him.

Unlike Dickens, with whom he had not a little in common, Daudet was fortunate in his marriage; and to his wife who, with the French nation and much of the reading world abroad, now mourns his loss, he owed not merely a generous share of domestic happiness, but that help and furtherance in his work which a true and loving helpmeet is capable of giving a literary man. To that influence, we believe, he also owed not a little of that purity of aim and purpose in his work which, with the native charm and geniality in the man and the poetic and artistic qualities with which he was richly endowed, endeared him especially to his English-speaking readers, as well as to hundreds of thousands of his own countrymen. G.M.A.

A DAY WITH THE GERMAN EMPEROR

PROMINENT among European monarchs stands William of Germany, whose pyrotechnic exploits are always original and sometimes disquieting. There are in his character certain theatrical traits which prompt him to pose; he seems desirous of using current events for the purpose of emphasizing his existence. Had he been born outside the purple, he would have made a capital exponent of the picturesque, romantic drama, a modern Lohengrin!

One is really fascinated, says a writer in a London contemporary, by this strange figure, which looms large in contemporary history, forming a formidable point of interrogation on the political horizon. Vainly the statesmen and diplomatists of Europe seek to decipher this living enigma. Who, in effect, can divine the motives or fathom the mental depths of a man whose character is so mobile, so complicated, so subject to vicarious influences? One day he overwhelms his royal grandmother with protestations of affection. The next he congratulates telegraphically her most determined enemies. He invites German Socialists to regard him as their natural leader. Hardly has he adopted this paternal attitude than he calls on the army in impassioned language to second him in his struggle against the hydra of anarchy. After telegraphing expressions of tender sympathy to the French, he rushes off to Metz to review the frontier troops, as if to satisfy himself that they are prepared to invade French territory at a moment's notice. Posing as a Prince of Peace, he is constantly improving and augmenting the finest fighting machine in the world! Eager to ingratiate himself with the British people, for whom he entertains real respect and admiration, he neglects no occasion of wounding their susceptibilities.

Really amazing are his vast conceptions, which embrace the entire gamut of human effort. He does the work of a dozen ministers, besides performing the onerous duties appertaining to his Imperial office. He commands the army, of which he is justly proud. Of its mechanism and capabilities he is as well informed as any chief of the staff. He is actively developing his navy. When the bill for its increase was presented to his Parliament, he prepared with his own hand, for the benefit of legislators, a complete statistical table of the British and German navies. Striking was the contrast in numbers and strength. He watches with jealous care the development of German commerce and industry, encourages colonial enterprise, and keeps in touch with that vast army of subjects who have become American citizens, and are developing German influence in the States. He would visit America but fears that complications might arise at home during his absence.

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The Kaiser fosters the fine arts, regulates religious affairs, occasionally preaches a sermon, writes dramas, paints pictures, evolves allegories, and organizes gorgeous state pageants. He peruses with equal interest the pronouncements of the Pope and those of Madame Adam,* the famous French petticoat politician, who does not love Germany or the Kaiser. He is as familiar with the characteristics of all the cardinals as he is with the records of the principal Imperial ballet-dancers. He knows everything of importance published in the home and foreign press, and phonographs the gossip of the Berlin clubs, cafés, and society haunts. Not an important event occurs anywhere without attracting the inevitable complimentary or critical telegram from this omniscient monarch. For him military ballooning, projectiles, smokeless powders, and quick-firing rifles have no secrets. Submarine boats, torpedo destroyers, weird engines of war, are his daily playthings. He finds time to give his Imperial consort hints on dress and the management of children; designs uniforms, invents tactical problems, acts as dramatic censor, and collaborates with poets in the glorification of his ancestors and the German Fatherland. He sees everything, knows everything, directs everything.

He may and does sin by commission, but never by omission. Introducing his minute, patient methods into the most stupendous plans, looking at everything from both ends of his mental telescope, he marches forward, a knight-errant of monarchy, conscientiously fulfilling his mission. Never weary, a stranger to illness, indolence, or any of those weaknesses which embarrass ordinary mortals, he offers to the world a brilliant example of incessant, feverish activity. For him the eight-hour day must ever remain a prohibited luxury.

How does the Kaiser contrive to do all this? One real source of strength is the conception — original, severe, even elevated — which he has formed of his Imperial destinies. Believing firmly in the divine character of his mission, he accepts it with all its crushing burdens and terrible responsibilities. He considers that a monarch should not only incarnate the principle of authority, but also be the most active collaborator in the work of the nation he has been appointed by heaven to govern. Moreover, he believes in himself with equal confidence — another source of strength, for the man who could always believe in himself would be invincible, irresistible.

Possessed of a keen intelligence, admirably served by a strong will, he makes excellent use of his time and opportunities. He is a clockwork monarch, who labors with commercial activity, punctuality, and regularity. "I am Kaiser, and I run my business!" he says. Whilst most other rulers are laboriously amusing themselves or contriving means to avoid dethronement, he is conscientiously governing his people. He governs all the time, and is always in the breach! Wherever an enemy to German greatness is found, up springs the Kaiser, Defender of the Faith, Father of his People, ready to smite any enemy of the Fatherland, be he German Socialist, Briton or Gaul!

The Kaiser rises at five. Jumping into a cold bath — the only British institution that he perpetuates — he rapidly dresses. At half-past six he has breakfasted. Forthwith he attacks the correspondence, reports from ministers and heads of departments, foreign telegrams, etc., delivered during the night. His orderly officers arrive; with them he discusses and arranges the day's programme. At seven he indulges in a little romp with his children. Then he adjourns to his reception-room, where he receives reports from certain high functionaries of the army and of the palace. They discuss the ceremonies, the appointments, and movements of the Kaiser. He also examines and checks accounts, confirms all orders given, and generally settles everything relating to his household and daily domestic life.

Eight o'clock strikes. On important occasions he then receives his ministers, archbishops, councillors, chief of police, generals and superior officials, who furnish him with verbal explanations concerning the reports they submit for signature. He minutely examines everything.

"I know," he often remarks to his ministers, "that I give you a great deal of trouble. But I can't help it. I am responsible for everything, and my con-

*Mme. Edmond Adam, the learned Frenchwoman, and editor of the *Nouvelle Review*, Paris.

science prevents me from coming to a hasty decision."

They may present twenty documents for signature, each being minutely discussed. Frequently he only signs three or four, the remainder being postponed for further consideration.

At nine o'clock, should the weather permit, he takes an hour's drive, walk or ride. A capital shot and a splendid horseman, he delights in dangerous jumps and perilous feats, which he performs with wonderful dexterity — considering that he has the full use of only one arm. Of his personal courage no one doubts.

About eleven o'clock verbal reports, conferences, and audiences commence. He receives and congratulates officers and functionaries just promoted, foreign ambassadors, German princes and members of the aristocracy, chatting with each a minute or two. Frequently he changes his uniform six or seven times, having enough uniforms of all nations, grades, and arms to clothe a small army. Suppose the son of an artillery general comes to announce the death of his father. The Kaiser, to honor the memory of a valued officer, dons the uniform of a general of artillery. He makes the costume fit the compliment. For foreign ambassadors or attachés he wears some uniform or decoration conferred on him by the sovereign of the dignitary in question. The fatiguing ceremonies last till two o'clock. Then the Kaiser partakes of a substantial lunch, which he can conscientiously claim to have earned! He indulges in the joys of family life, Kaiser, consort, and children making the most of any interludes in his busy day.

During the afternoons he visits ministers, generals, or high functionaries, discussing with them current State affairs. Or he goes to the studio of an artist or photographer, posing for a statue, bust, portrait or family group. Few monarchs devote so much time to the reproduction of their august features. Sometimes he pays private visits, inspects barracks, museums, or public institutions. If not too busy, he takes a drive.

At half-past six he receives any ministers or functionaries who desire to communicate with or consult him. He reads reports and signs those documents which had been reserved for further consideration.

At seven o'clock he dines *en famille* — unless due at some public function. After dinner, when at home, the Kaiser invariably devotes a certain time to his consort and children. He sympathizes with the former in the grief she feels at her increasing stoutness. His children are reared on Spartan principles — plenty of study, plenty of hard exercise, plenty of discipline; very little leisure or indulgence. That was his lot when young.

Quitting the family circle, the Kaiser indulges in an hour's fencing. About ten o'clock he sups and retires. When in bed he reads private detectives' reports, a book, or any document demanding attention. A brilliant linguist, he reads English and French in the original, preferring military and naval works. Occasionally he reads a French novel, the "Times," the "Figaro," or the "Secolo," which journals often suggest visions of *lêse-majesté*.

When the Kaiser cannot sleep, he indites answers to official documents, private letters, or instructions to ministers. Occasionally, he jumps out of bed, hastily dresses, summons his orderly officers, and stalks off to the nearest barracks to turn out the troops. Woe to any officers absent at party, ball, club, or café!

When a king or prince visits him, his ordinary labors are doubled by banquets, promenades, ceremonies, and the preparation of toasts and speeches. But he keeps abreast of current affairs by reducing his sleeping hours. Moreover, the Kaiser is constantly paying visits, hunting, reviewing troops, launching battleships. Whilst travelling he works hard in his car, examining reports, signing documents, dictating instructions. After the ceremonies, speeches, shouting, roaring of cannon and blare of trumpets, he retires harassed, fatigued, enervated. More signatures, telegrams, documents, reports to expedite. The State machine cannot be stopped.

Even when on board his yacht he finds at every port an avalanche of letters, telegrams, and despatches. These are promptly studied, answered, and despatched.

His intimate friends fear that this feverish, high-pressure existence must sooner or latter result in a collapse, mental and physical. But he continues to drive full steam ahead, going at a pace which would kill any ordinary man within a year.

ROLAND BELFORT.

THE STORY OF HUMAN PROGRESS:

NEO-CELTIC AND BYZANTINE ART IN THEIR ARCHÆOLOGICAL ASPECTS*

THE next art revolution in these latitudes [Early Britain], meant the importation of a new stock. This was coincident with the introduction of iron. This problem as it presents itself in Britain is one of the great puzzles of early archæology, for it means a great deal more than the mere introduction of iron for the cutting of weapons and tools; it means the introduction of an entirely new style of ornament, a style of ornament apparently quiet indigenous, consisting of the most graceful scrolls, known as trumpet scrolls, of endless variety and taste. Alongside of this we have the most wonderful skill in metallurgy. Nothing can exceed the delicate manipulation with which the old artificers fashioned the objects of manifold shape, and of entirely new designs — bone trappings, shields, helmets, swords and dagger sheaths, spoons, mirrors, etc., and the dexterous way in which they ornamented them with enamel, which they were, apparently, the first to discover and to apply. These objects have occurred in the greatest number in the United Kingdom; but they have also been found in Belgium, in Eastern France, and in certain parts of Switzerland, and it would seem, therefore, that they reached us by some migration down the Rhine.

One important fact about this art is, that we know its relative date. We know that it was living when the Romans conquered Britain. The remains of the early Roman conquerors are found mixed with objects of this date in the hill forts of Dorsetshire, and the descriptions of Cæsar apply to this charioteering people. Not only so, but it survived the Roman Conquest in that part of these islands untouched by the Roman Conquest — namely, in Ireland. The art of Ireland, until it was displaced and sophisticated by the Norsemen, was a mere development and growth of this art, and it is found abundantly displayed in the ornaments illustrated by Westwood in his work on Irish MSS. How long it flourished here before the Roman Conquest, and at what date it displaced the art of the Bronze people, we do not know. This same art is found in the Rhine valley, and in Switzerland; it is not found in Denmark and Germany, where the objects of the Iron age have an entirely different history.

Nor, again, is it found in Western France, nor in Spain, and the only avenue, therefore, by which it can have reached Britain is that suggested by an acute friend, namely, the valley of the Rhine. In an original and suggestive memoir on this subject, Mr. Arthur Evans traces this art to Switzerland. There it seems to have incubated and developed itself in contact with the art of the Etruscans, with which at some points it has some analogy; but as a whole its inspiration is not Etruscan, but it goes back further to that primitive Mediterranean art which, for lack of a better name, we call Mycenæan — the art of the Homeric poems. It is in the Mycenæan objects that we find the same scrolls and the same dexterous manipulation of metal, and the use also of enamel. The distinction, of course, is that the use of iron has meanwhile been introduced. This, however, was only for cutting objects; the ornaments, the sword sheaths, the shields, helmets, mirrors, etc., all continued to be made of bronze. The introduction of iron merely displaced the kind of metal, and did not affect the art.

The people who developed and used this later Celtic art also used coins. These coins have been traced partially to the coinage of Philip of Macedon, large quantities of whose gold "staters" were probably taken back by the Gauls after their invasion of Greece. The gradual sophistication of these Greek models has been traced and followed out by Sir John Evans, with his usual ingenuity and acumen. On another side, we seem to have evidence that Druidism, which differed from the old polytheistic religion of the Gauls and Germans, which was

*Concluded from the paper by Sir Henry Howorth, F.R.S., President of the Archæological Institute of Great Britain, in SELF CULTURE for Sept. 1897. (p. 542, Vol. V., No. 6.)

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related to the religions of Rome and Greece, was imported from the far East, and, having apparently reached Thrace, was carried back with them by the Gauls who had invaded Greece, and who thus acquired the notions of metempsychosis, etc., and I am not at all sure that the old theory of Godfrey Higgins, which has not had many adherents lately, is not true that Druidism was largely the outcome of the teaching of the Buddhist monks, who, we know, penetrated into Persia and Syria, as they spread their ideas and the artistic instincts of India all the further east from Japan to Java.

But to return to Europe. The art I have been describing, which has been styled Neo-Celtic by Sir A. Wollaston Franks, who has done so much to illustrate it, was imported by a new wave of population, to which the name Belgic has been given, and whose original home was apparently in Switzerland and South Germany. This race is now best represented by the Welsh, but we must not forget that it also had large colonies in Ireland, where Neo-Celtic art became predominant and where it outlived the Roman domination elsewhere. In Great Britain, as on the Continent, this art was displaced, as so much of the art of the world was, by the Roman, itself a daughter of Greece. It is not my purpose to discuss such a well-known subject as Roman art. I would only point out how the newer school of archæology has shown that Roman art was very largely the art of the Roman provinces, and not so much Italian. Alexandria was a great centre of the silversmiths' and other artistic metal work; Treves and Cologne and Lyons and Clermont of pottery, of glass, and also of metal work; and there can be no doubt that Greece, both continental and insular, continued to be under the Roman domination a fertile mother of sculpture, architecture, etc.

Rome was the great assimilator and distributor of these various provincial wares, as her language became the *lingua franca* of half the known world; her laws embodied and displaced other forms of jurisprudence; her generous Pantheon welcomed the foreign gods, and her military system mixed and mingled the natives of very different countries and climates. When the Roman capital was removed to Byzantium new and fresh ideas were apparently developed, or perhaps old ones which had been localized there were distributed in all directions. In one direction Parthians and Sassanians drank at the well, and it is not possible now to say whether the embroideries, the damasks, the silver bowls, etc., which we associate with these Eastern people, were Byzantine or not. In another direction the art of Byzantium spread all over the Teutonic world. The art we call Teutonic is really Byzantine. The tribes which were planted on the various frontiers of the Empire, and were largely in its service and its pay, were all directly indebted to Byzantium for their art.

Hence it is, we find the same art with slight local differences among the Goths of the Crimea, the Lombards in Italy, the Burgundians in Austria and Switzerland, the Alemanni on the Rhine, the Merovingians in Gaul, the Angles and Saxons in Britain, the Visigoths in Spain, the Vandals in Africa, and the earlier Scandinavians in Denmark and Scandinavia. The *cloisonné* jewellery, the interlaced dragon patterns, etc., all of which have such a common likeness, have an equally common likeness with the work which we can trace to the Queen of the Bosphorus; and, as Lindinschmidt was never tired of preaching, there is no Teutonic art. The art of all the Teutonic tribes who founded the modern States of Europe was in reality the art of Byzantium, and this was so in later times also. The art of the Carlovingian Empire and of the later Anglo-Saxons was the art of the exarchate of Ravenna, just as the art of Southeastern Europe, as preserved in the churches of Kief, was the direct daughter of Constantinople. The enamels, the bronze work, the ivories, the illuminations in books, the jewellery, etc., are all directly traceable to the same opulent mother.

But it was among the Arabs that the seeds of Byzantine art flourished and thrived the most. The Arabs themselves in regard to art were always a sterile race. Like their own sands, they do not seem to have had the instinct for art; but they had the instinct of government, and at Bagdad, at Cairo, and at Granada, they founded communities which are as famous as any in the world's history. They had the Semitic instinct, too, for making money, and, having made it, for spending it freely as munificent patrons; but they initiated nothing. When we

speak of Arab art we mean the art of Byzantium, which had a curious renaissance of its own under the impulse of fresh ideas gathered together from every wind of heaven by the enterprise of these Arab traders, who crossed all the known seas from China to the Straits of Gibraltar. Cæsarea, Antioch, Damascus, and Alexandria, the mother of Cairo, were Byzantine cities with flourishing arts before the Arabs annexed them, and, so far as we know, the arts of Damascus and Cairo were the daughters of Byzantine art. The mosques of St. Sophia and of Omar were Christian churches before they became the models for the stately buildings of the later caliphs.

Embroidery, pottery, and glass and metal working, including damascene and bronze casting, all passed from Byzantine craftsmen to those of Arabia, and the chief development they received was in response to the injunctions of the Prophet against the making of graven images and of painted representations, which compelled those employed by the Arabs to devote their energies to developing conventional ornamentation and so-called arabesque work. Their contact with the Chinese and the Hindoos enabled them in pottery, and probably also in bronze work, etc., to supplement the lessons they learned nearer home with fresh lessons from the farthest East. Then came a curious phase. As is often the case in the modest life of our homes, the daughter, having outgrown her mother's teaching, returned some of the lessons, and in turn became the fruitful mother of new ideas and of new inspiration.

From Egypt and from Syria art workmen found their way to Venice and Pisa and other Italian towns, and started men along new roads by presenting them with new models. The glass, the brass work, and the pottery of Venice, when Venice headed the renaissance of the industrial arts, were all the children of eastern workmen imported by the rich Republic. Another wave of Mohammedan art influence passed through north Africa into southern Spain and its islands. There the lustered wares known as majolican had, if not their origin, their great development, and thence they were transplanted to Italy. The fine tiles which the Moors made were widely imitated, as their azulejos by the Spaniards; and thence also largely came the astrolabes, the clocks, and other inventions which Arab science had produced.

One feature in the panorama we have hastily traced is obvious, namely, that it has been the nations and the peoples with great mercantile enterprise who have not only been rich enough to patronize but who have also been in contact with fresh ideas which have given art its new departure. The Flemings at Bruges and the Hanse traders all over the Baltic accumulated and developed ideas which they picked up at Novgorod and in the far-off districts of Perm, etc. On the other hand, the Venetians and the Genoese had their factories all over the Black Sea and among the isles of Greece. They shook hands there with the caravan traders from China and from the far countries of Siberia, and had to supply each other in return with objects suitable to their taste and needs. The Mongols were masters of the greater parts of the Asiatic world. Their ruthless conquests drove the artificers of Persia into India and into Egypt, and in either country a great rejuvenescence of the arts took place at the same time in the same style, and it is a most curious piece of history, as well as interesting in art, to compare the tombs of the caliph at Cairo with those of the Pathan sultans at Delhi.

Then the Mongols themselves became civilized and settled, and their artificers crowded back and brought new ideas with them, and at Tebriz and Sullania erected buildings and decorated them in a manner previously unattained. Not only so, but the great masses of workmen were transported eastward and westward under the control of the same exacting masters, and thus the designs on Chinese porcelain — phœnixes and dragons, etc., — invaded Persia; and similarly the Chinese learned how to make what we call blue and white porcelain, which they did not know until the time of the Ming dynasty.

To take one more illustration: We cannot wander about the glorious ruins of Britain — among such ruins as Wenlock Priory — without being reminded of the sermon in every stone. We realize how much we owe to Gregory and to Augustine, who planted Christianity here, as well as to Benedict and St. Bernard, and their indomitable disciples and

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scholars, who reared aloft high standards of purity and simplicity of work and of duty in a community which was disintegrated under the influence of a barbarous soldiery and of brutal and uneducated manners. We are further reminded, while we can almost hear the jingling spurs and iron-incased feet of the knights tramping down the aisles, that it was the romantic enterprise of the crusading nobles, prelates, and monks which brought back the genius of Gothic architecture to Europe, and the taste for poetry, for sentiment, and for art, which they had learned from the Saracens, followers of Saladin, and it was very largely their handiwork that flooded western Europe with new ideas, which blossomed into magnificent forms in our minsters, and the equally fresh and novel ideas which Froissart and Chaucer and Malory enshrined in immortal verse and prose; and if we turn the medal and look on the other side we shall realize the reflex influence of the crusades on the East.

I do not propose to carry this disintegrated story further. My purpose and object have been to press home as a universal factor of human progress the element of continuity which we all concede in regard to particular cases, and to emphasize the lesson that we cannot do justice to our subject if we limit our horizon.

It is not exhilarating to our vanity and self-respect to think that human progress is not a continual growth — that men reach levels very often which those who come after cannot emulate. The men who built the Parthenon no less than the unknown architects of so many of our great minsters, the artificers who manufactured the lovely embroideries, the matchless tiles, the radiant decorations of the Alhambra and the Taj Mahal at Agra, have left no heirs, and we are mere scholars sitting at their feet. Our strength is not great enough to bear the lamps which they carried in so many ways. Every generation of men, it may be, has its triumphs; yet it is not altogether reassuring to think that in the great meeting in the happy hunting-grounds beyond the screen of night it will not be the nineteenth century which will occupy the foreground. Homer will still lead the procession of the poets, Socrates of the moral philosophers, Phidias of the sculptors, Raphael of the painters; and not only so, but we shall have to give place to many unknown and unchronicled masters of their crafts in the days of old.

HENRY HOWORTH, F.R.S.

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"The Pupils of Peter the Great" Under this title, Mr. R. Nisbet Bain, has just issued a work dealing with the Russian Court and Empire between the eventful years 1697, when Peter the Great became sole ruler of the Muscovite people, and 1740. The period is that in which Russia emerges from barbarism and becomes a political force in Europe. Reviewing Mr. Bain's work, the London "Spectator" observes that "the world has made up its mind about Peter the Great, whose character, strange as it is, is in no sense mysterious or inexplicable. He was, on one side, an odious ruffian. He drank like a fish, ate like a hog; he had a temper like that of Nero or Henry VIII.; he was unfaithful to his wife, and he was the murderer of his own son. But as one loathes and shudders at the individual, one admires the ruler. Was there ever in human history a more indomitable will, a life more crowded with work and projects, a more complete devotion to the State? Mr. Bain thinks he deserves the name of 'Great,' and we think so too, much as we dislike the man's private character. Perhaps no other type of man could have then done the work needed by Russia, and it was successful work, too, a solid and enduring structure, not a grand ruin like that of Napoleon. *Wunderkind* though he was, Peter was aided by circumstances, notably by the increasing anarchy of Poland and the political incapacity of Charles XII., of Sweden. It is evident how clear was the Russian problem to the mind of Peter; he struck straight for the true goal,—a Baltic seaboard, a new capital with new industries, arts, appliances, a 'window into Europe,' the regaining of true Slavonic territory; he failed only in his attack on Turkey, and so handed on the problem of southern extension to his successors. In Carlyle's sense, Peter was a democrat, as Napoleon was. 'The tools to him who can handle them' was his motto, and few things in his career are more interesting than his discovery of Yaguzhinsky, the son of a Lutheran organist, and Menshikov, a man who sold pies in the streets of Moscow. These two extraordinary men were placed high in Peter's confidence; they were among his statesmen and boon companions; he drank floods of brandy with them, and he entrusted them with many of his administrative reforms. Both men were rascals, but they were capable, and that was Peter's test. On Peter's death his mistress, and afterwards wife, Catherine Alekseyeevna, succeeded to the throne, and here again we see Peter's democratic instincts, for she was a plump and handsome serving-maid who had first come to Russia a half-naked captive. Catherine had to contend against her lowly origin and her sex, for Russia, so soon to experience powerful feminine rule, was strong in prejudice against a woman on the throne. Catherine however, was a sensible woman; and though her reign saw much distress and great financial difficulties, she contrived to steer the Empire safely past the shoals and reaction which threatened all Peter's new reforms."

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APPROVED BY HEADS OF UNIVERSITIES, SUPERINTENDENTS OF EDUCATION, AND Y. M. C. A. SECRETARIES

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YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK CITY "To tell you that I am pleased with SELF CULTURE does not fully express how thoroughly it seemed to fill an ideal place in my mind. I have long thought that while many of our magazines were excellent, there were only two or three articles in each which I felt like recommending to young men; but every article, in the copies you have sent me, is valuable for this class especially. I wish I could help to place the magazine in every one of our reading-rooms, and will particularly urge the young men everywhere to read it. Wishing you success in the excellent undertaking in which you are engaged." GEORGE A. HALL, *State Secretary.*

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

With Departments Devoted to the Interests of The Home University League.

Every person has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—GIBBON.

VOL. VI FEBRUARY, 1898 NO. 5

G. MERCER ADAM, EDITOR
HOWARD P. RUGGLES, BUSINESS MANAGER

THE PARTITION OF CHINA From recent happenings in Chinese waters, it is obvious that we are to see established a Germano-Chinese State, and, if we are to treat seriously the Kaiser's recent talk with Count Zichy, we may ere long find the Emperor's brother, now on his way to the Far East, his satrap on the Dragon throne. Meanwhile, China is ostensibly a consenting party, not only to Germany's seizure of Kiao-Chow, but has also made Russia valuable concessions and allowed her fleet on the Pacific wintering quarters in Port Arthur, which commands the water-approaches to Peking. Were it not that we are outsiders and do not know the inner game, we should say that these concessions to Western Powers betoken an early dismemberment of the fossilized land of the Mongol, or that the Middle Kingdom was so overcome with the somnolence of impotence that she is, as a nation, heedless of what fate befalls her. Not many more things can happen in the Yellow Sea without disclosing whether China has merely quaffed too deeply of the stupifying drug, to which she owes much of her national degradation, or is really dead at the roots of her public life. It may be, however, that she is merely the victim of circumstances; and by that we mean not only that she is the dupe of aggressing powers, bent on securing against commercial rivals the plums of trade in her vast and unwieldy kingdom, with the possession of harbors on the coast for offence and defence, but is at the same time the paralyzed victim of a thoroughly corrupt and denationalized native government.

Ominous as the outlook is for China, we can hardly think that the inevitable has come to her, and that the Middle Kingdom, with its four hundred millions of a population, is so utterly rotten at the core as to be indifferent to her national existence, and incapable of yet making a fight for life and holding at bay the invaders and dismemberers of her soil. We saw, of course, how Japan in the late war sunk her fleet and overcame her in arms, and with what tame complacency she submitted to humiliating terms after a brief conflict; and we know, also, how she has, time and again, been overrun by other nations, and had her seaports forced open, in spite of her inveterate ideas of aloofness and seclusion. Nevertheless, there must yet, we think, be forces unaroused in the nation which can be rallied for self-defence; and among the Mandarins of Peking there surely is some spark of patriotism that can be fanned into flame for the salvation of the Empire. Perhaps the loan (of eighty million dollars), which England is said to be negotiating for the Imperial Court at Peking, may infuse new strength into the nerveless arm, and so change the threatening course of destiny. An alliance between Britain and Japan, to maintain the *status quo* against the designs of Russia and Germany, would certainly improve the outlook for China; while, if nothing else results, the mere raising of the loan will give Britain unquestionable advantages, which she will not fail, we may be sure, to profit by. Aside from this, it will not be easy to steal a march on British commerce, already paramount at Hong Kong and Shanghai, or by any union of rival powers to offset the insuperable advantages which England possesses in her unparalleled sea-power, with command of the chief coaling stations.

It is the consciousness of these advantages that enables England to-day to view with no misgiving the not overmoral descent upon and partition of China, especially as she will be sure, when the fit time comes, to insist that the seized ports shall, in harmony with her commercial policy, be open to the trade of the world. This is a matter that also deeply concerns the United States, and, indeed, as is the case with England, is the only one that calls for this country's solicitude and possib interference. Whatever scramble th

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may be among the European Powers, and France, we note, has just joined the dance, in looking after her own share of the spoil in Southern China, with Japan expectantly eyeing the whole despoilment, this country must be assured that, in the scuffle and dismemberment of the Celestial Kingdom, no treaty-rights which are already ours shall be set aside, or in any way suffer curtailment.

* * *

THE PENSION LIST SCANDAL Once more does the national legislature dishonor itself by rushing through the House, without close scrutiny of its manifold impositions and frauds, a Pension Bill which is becoming, year by year, an increasing scandal. So heedless is Congress of the people's money, that at a recent sitting of the Senate, just before the holidays, the Chamber passed 138 private pension bills in sixty minutes! What examination could a single one of those bills receive when the whole batch was disposed of at the rate of nearly two-and-a-half a minute? Nor is this speed in deliberating upon drafts on the public exchequer, we believe, unusual. More than once of late has the above record been beaten; and the House of Representatives can show equal despatch in sending special pension bills, without due inquiry into their genuineness, to the President. In the face of facts like these, and the suspicions which they excite in the public mind that the methods of thus adding to the roll of honor are not complimentary to the army's deserving brave, need we wonder at the enormous burden cast upon the country by the beneficiaries, good and bad, of the nation, or at the demand, now arising from all honest sources, for light to be thrown upon the pension rolls by their immediate publication?

That this country, a generation after the close of the Civil War, should be paying $141,000,000 annually to nearly a million pensioners — that is, to nearly half as many persons as there were soldiers enlisted for three years' service on the northern side of the struggle — bears evidence on the face of it, not so much of the country's considerate treatment of those who honorably fought its battles, as of complacency in being gracelessly, and, it is to be feared, extensively, defrauded. The evidence in support of this, unfortunately, is neither new nor doubtful. So true is it, that Pension Commissioners and special examiners have for some time been at work investigating the matter, and have not only unearthed many "bogus" claims, extending back for a number of years, but have, in numerous instances, proceeded against those who have shamelessly defrauded the public treasury. These, we believe, have been punished for perjury and been compelled, as far as possible, to make restitution.

The matter is one which the country has naturally been averse to probe, since the feeling is, that if we are to have the luxury of a pension fund, it shall be a generous one; and, in the case of veterans, upon whom the burden of years must now fall heavily, it is specially felt that the nation shall see to it that the evening of their days shall be comfortable, and, above all things, free from want. The motive, obviously, is excellent and the spirit admirable. Unfortunately, the disposition to be generous has over-ridden the will and ability to be just, since it disregards the methods by which, under political pressure, this country has more than doubled the number of its pensioners within the past ten years. It also disregards the fact that the system, by giving a bounty to pension attorneys, has practically added an army of 50,000 of them to the nation's pay list, for, in the last seven years, over ten million dollars have, it is said, been paid to them for their heroic services in bringing half a million old soldiers up to the public crib.

Herein lies the trouble, not, of course, that the bulk of the would-be pensioners have no well-founded claims, or that the pension agents are, to any large extent, dishonest, but that political influence is all-powerful, and where appeal is made to it, by the usual and well-known arts, the public interest becomes a secondary matter, and liability is incurred without scrupulous regard to the motives that have prompted the appeal, to the circumstances of the applicant, or to the general merits of the case. The door is hence open to all sorts of abuse of the nation's bounty, and even to the grossest imposture. Crooked work, we know, is also winked at, and the independence of legislators weakened, by partisan appeals, as

well as by sinister remindals of the power of the soldier vote.

To just and defensible claims, no man of humane and patriotic feeling would of course object; but a stop should be made to frauds of all kinds, and particularly to the inducement to young women, of not the best characters, to inveigle old soldiers into a remarriage for the sake only of the pension. To pay fees to pension agents for every soldier who can be induced to file a claim, whatever his regimental record may be, is another fruitful source of piling up the pensions (which now exceed by thirty millions the annual maintenance of the whole standing army of Germany), as well as to impose grossly on the Government's generosity. We are glad to see that the chief commissioner at Washington is alive to the scandal, which the colossal Pension Bill has now become, and as a remedy advocates the publishing of the lists. It is also assuring to see the willingness of the chiefs of the Grand Army to cooperate with the pension officials in purging the fund of impudent claims which, by honoring them, bring dishonor on the worthy and deserving.

THE POSSESSION OF THE NILE

The student of history has to rub his eyes hard in these times when he asks himself, "Is it true that the land of the old Ming dynasty and that of the later Manchu-Tartar emperors is being parcelled out by Russia, France, and Germany?" As great a shock will be felt by him when he comes to reflect upon the fact that the ancient kingdom of the Ptolemies, with the valley of the great Nile, of which, as Herodotus said, Egypt was the gift, is all but in the possession of England. And yet before Britain's dream is realized, of the conquest of the Soudan and the establishment of her power from the great river's delta to the Cape of Good Hope, may she not have once more to fight France in the land of the Pharaohs, and repeat there either Napoleon's victory over the Mamelukes within sight of the Pyramids, or Nelson's crushing defeat of Brueys at the battle of the Nile? In the latter event, it would be curious to see history so signally repeating itself. These remarks, it will be obvious, are suggested by the fact that England, with the help of Egyptian arms, is soon now to close in upon the Khalifa's Dervish hordes at Khartoum, and so make good her hold upon Egypt and the Nile Valley, to the extreme chagrin of France. A further step in this movement, in wresting from the Mahdi, for imperial interests, Egypt's old dominion in the Soudan, has just been taken, with the consent of King Menelik of Abyssinia. Kassala, a hill-post on the Soudan border of the Italian colony of Erythrea, about midway between the Nile and the port of Massowah, on the Red Sea, has been transferred by Italy to Egypt, and the latter's troops have just taken possession, while the Italians have evacuated the place. This exchange gives Egypt, and England with her, another base of operations against the Khalifa, and though a distant one, it will be useful in maintaining safe communication between Berber and, when captured, Khartoum, and the littoral of the Red Sea.

While the transfer of Kassala is being effected, rather disconcerting news, however, comes to hand, which puts a new face upon England's operations in the Nile Valley, and disturbs her dream of conquest in the ancient land of mysteries. We refer to the report that an expedition, bearing the tri-color from the French Congo, has reached Fashoda, 400 miles south of Khartoum, and claimed for France the region of the Bahr-el-Ghazel country, thus commanding the Upper Nile and cutting in two England's line of communication from Suez to the great equatorial lakes, thence to Rhodesia and the Cape. The report lacks confirmation as to its designs, which presumedly cannot be very warlike, since it is an expedition of scientists; though it is said to be on the Upper Nile with the purpose of barring England's advance to the Lakes, and so curtailing her visions of African empire. Some have hinted that the Khalifa will take advantage of the presence of the French to help him to dispute England's title to the Nile, and possibly aid him with French arms in the coming contest for the possession of the Mahdist stronghold of Omdurman, adjoining Khartoum. The possibilities of such an alliance with barbarism must, however, be remote, though the French, it is known, are sore with England over affairs in West Africa and the recent collision in the Niger Coast protectorate.

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The matter is important only in its tendency to hasten England's forward movement upon Khartoum, and to precipitate the impending struggle with the Khalifa and his Dervish cut-throats, and thus rid the Soudan of a constant menace to Egypt and hindrance to the progress of civilization. Elsewhere (see page 455 in the present issue), we deal with the argument against England's presence and her designs in Egypt, which is valid in no one's mouth who understands the situation, and can view dispassionately the financial gain to Egypt, as well as to French and English bondholders, in Britain's control of Egyptian finances and the moral and material advantages sure to follow her expenditure of blood and treasure in the Soudan. The one regret is that after Tel-el-Kebir and the murder of Gordon, England, in 1885, left her work half done in Egypt, and under Gladstone's timid régime withdrew from the country. A decisive blow now, we trust, will complete the task she has pluckily undertaken, and rid the region of Mahdist fanaticism and of the cruelties and obstruction of barbarism.

FRENCH MONARCHY AND THE REPUBLIC

French uneasiness in regard to a revival of the monarchy has been lulled almost to sleep by the announcement, made the other day by the Duke of Orleans, that he renounced his claim to the French throne. The manifesto was addressed to M. Eugene Dufeuille, the exiled Duke's political representative in France. The circumstance that no doubt elicited the renunciation is the approaching general elections in France; and the declaration of the Duke, withdrawing his pretensions to the throne, was evidently prompted by his desire that those who clung to the hope of royalty in the nation should know in the coming contest how to vote. Were he consulted, he practically says that he does not abandon hope of monarchy for France, and believes that she will yet find "prosperity and grandeur under a constitutional yet liberal monarchical rule." But — and here he shows himself a patriotic Frenchman — he directs his followers to prefer, in the meantime, "social preservation and liberty," and to work, wherever they can, "for the triumph of ideas of order." This, it is true, is poor consolation for the monarchists in the Republic; but for the nation at large it is better than vainly seeking the opportunity for a *coup d'état*, which would probably end in fruitless bloodshed, or than maintaining a gulf of separation between classes in the nation.

The truth is, that since the death, in 1883, of Count Chambord (Henry V.), the sole representative of the elder branch of the Bourbon House, and the expulsion from France of the Orleanist princes that followed three years later, the hope of a restoration of the Empire has been extremely slim. Though French governments have since been numerous and political parties often turbulent and unstable, yet France has on the whole been satisfied and fairly well governed under the Repuplic, while she has not sighed very ardently for a return of the siren days of the Empire, or for a usurping dictatorship and a reactionary monarchy.

LAST YEAR'S RECORD AMONG THE NATIONS

In the stream of daily life that has raced along, in the year that has just passed, the topics have been many that have attracted notice and excited discussion. Of these topics, few, perhaps, have been of more general interest than those that have dealt with the perturbations and upheavals among the nations, with the varied changes and vicissitudes that have marked their annals, and the political and social movements that have stirred the minds of the more active of their subjects. Nor has our own country, unfettered as it is by rigid tradition and convention, and unrestrained by a galling governing force, remained uninfluenced by the movements which have agitated the peoples of other nations, or been herself untroubled by disturbing though quickening thought. The nation has nevertheless made substantial progress, and though there is little cause for exultation on moral and intellectual grounds, the material advancement has been greater than that of immediately preceding years. If in the past year we have not enjoyed entire political tranquillity, we have not been vexed by the partisan turmoil which unhappily marks the years of our quadrennial contests for the presidency, and the time and energies of our people have been turned to more profitable account. If we are wise, we shall enjoy

our present surcease from agitation for the purposes of sober reflection, and for making, as a nation, some good resolutions, which we shall carry forward not only over the year that has opened, but over the chasm between the centuries which we must soon cross.

How has it fared, in the past year, with other nations? A writer, in a recent issue of the New York "Tribune," has, we note, thoughtfully told us. Speaking of England, he says, that

> Imperialism has been the master-word throughout the year in that nation most near to this in sympathy and interest. A sovereign second in worth to none in all the splendid line has celebrated the endurance of her reign to a span exceeding that of any other in the empire's history. The chief significance of the august event was a quickening of imperialism, a knitting together more strongly of the ties that bind the red-hued areas of all six continents and countless isles in one. * * Of that kindred power which has now come to be Great Britain's foremost rival, it may be said that the imperial note is always dominant. The Kaiser's mailed hand has fallen heavily upon the council-board of nations. His legions have kept the camps against all menace. His warships have been increased. His merchantmen have reached all markets of the world. His flag has been raised above lands where it never flew before. * * France has rejoiced in an alliance with her one-time enemy, and feels herself at last restored to an unchallengeable place among the royal and imperial Powers. But the echoes of Panama still haunt her, and the terror of another and worse Panama menaces her.
>
> Russia has played a strenuous part in more than one international drama, and has steadily pushed forward in the direction of what she deems her destiny. Yet her progress is not unimpeded, and it may be checked. Austria-Hungary has all the year been in the throes of intestine discord, which threatens her very existence. The story of Italy is a tale of relinquishments and of suffering.
>
> Nor is it better when we turn from the individuals to the Concert. The united will of them all was flouted by the weakest of the States which exist upon their sufferance, and is to this day defied by that "Sick Man" for whose demise their hope has long been weary.
>
> The smaller or weaker Powers have fared no better. Greece and Turkey fought a war, with little credit and no real gain to either. Greece is despoiled, but Turkey cannot enjoy the spoils. Long months of haggling and worse in Crete have left that troublous island where it was. Sweden and Norway are still murmuring at each other, but make no progress toward a settlement. Spain has run the gamut of cruelty and clemency in Cuba, and of party change and financial vicissitude at home, and finds herself at the year's end no nearer peace and renewed prosperity than she was at its beginning. Hawaii's ambition is still unsatisfied. Japan has little on which to congratulate herself. China has reached the verge of dissolution, but still retains a semblance of integrity. India has struggled with plague and famine, while a few savage despots in Africa have met a fitting doom, and the world is a little better for their being no longer in it. * * * Is it a pessimistic record? Not at all. There are no doubt those who are disappointed that the year was not more fruitful. But "expecting all things in an hour" is not the part of wisdom.

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SUCCESS AND PROGRESS OF SELF CULTURE

The approaching completion of the sixth volume of SELF CULTURE will, it is hoped, be taken as a proof that its owners and conductors are heartily in earnest in prosecuting the enterprise which, in the past year especially, has been so favorably received. The continued success of the magazine, together with the high endorsement it has been honored with from many of the most prominent educators in the United States, justify its promoters in the belief that there was an imperious want for just such a publication, in the interest of self-education and of the higher intellectual life of the nation. That it has done something towards developing, in a practical, educative way, the intellectual resources of masses of thoughtful people throughout the land, and in cultivating their literary taste, as well as in furnishing an important vehicle of modern thought and opinion, the commendatory notices in the preceding pages abundantly testify. For these kind and encouraging words from eminent sources, as well as for the hearty and gratifying efforts of many good friends of the magazine, the publishers' sincere thanks are due. Relying on the continuance of these friendly offices and other evidences of encouragement and good-will, the publishers will seek to maintain the high character which the magazine has won for itself, and, with the editor's aid, will endeavor to make it a still worthier exponent of the aims and views which have given SELF CULTURE its special place among the periodicals of the country. To extend the circulation of the magazine, and that it may reach a still more wide-spread constituency of readers, the publishers would direct attention to the advantageous club rates to be found in the advertising pages. The editor's special thanks are tendered to the writers of the commendatory notices inserted in the present issue of the magazine, which he is kindly permitted to publish.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Wednesday, December 8.—Secretary of the Treasury Gage has sent to Congress a report showing how the treasury department has suppressed filibustering expeditions to Cuba.... The records of the treasury department show that the amount of net gold on hand was $158,191,669, which is greater than at any time since August 1890, when it was $185,837,581....The Spanish officials in Havana announced that Spanish troops have been engaged with an insurgent force under General Maximo Gomez.... Four French cruisers have been ordered to prepare to sail for China.

Thursday, December 9.—December wheat sold in Chicago for $1.09 a bushel, the highest price since 1891....Chairman H. H. Hanna, of the monetary commission, has sent to bankers, insurance men, and money brokers an appeal to support the plan of financial reform to be decided upon by the commission....It was officially announced from Spanish headquarters in Havana that the insurgents entered the town of Caimanera and carried off $30,000....Premier Sagasta announced in the Spanish Cabinet that in the event of the United States wishing to intervene in Cuba it would find Spain prepared to defend her rights.

Friday, December 10.—Chairman Dingley, of the house ways and means committee, claims that the tariff act will produce a revenue of $10,000,000 next year....A delegation of Hawaiians called on Secretary of State Sherman and presented the protest of 20,000 natives against the annexation of the Islands....General Ruis Rivera, the insurgent leader, was released from prison in Cuba, having been pardoned by royal decree. . Ambassador and Mrs. Hay dined and slept at Windsor Castle by invitation of the Queen.

Saturday, December 11.—Senator Mark Hanna says he believes Hawaii will be annexed to the United States .. The receipts of fifty of the largest post offices in November amounted to $3,327,862, an increase of $382,533 over the same month of last year....The value of domestic exports in November was $82,323,699 ... The Haytian ministry has resigned....The governor of the province of Santiago de Cuba is quoted as saying that Cuba is lost to Spain.... Baron von Thielmann, in presenting the German budget to the Reichstag, announced a surplus of 20,000,000 marks.

Sunday, December 12.—Mrs. Nancy Allison McKinley, mother of the President, died at her home in Canton, Ohio, aged 88....The Japanese minister in Washington said that his government was not opposed to the annexation of Hawaii by the United States... General Weyler arrived in Madrid and was ostentatiously received by ex-Premier Azcarraga and other leaders of the Opposition....A London cable dispatch says that many valuable Rossland (B. C.) mines and Alaskan properties have been secured for a British-American corporation, for £1,000,000....The steamship "Moana" is bringing $1,375,000 in gold from Australia to San Francisco.

Monday, December 13.—The treasury department on December 24, 1897, will be prepared to begin the redemption, without rebate of interest, of the bonds issued in aid of the Pacific railroads, commonly known as currency sixes, and maturing January 1, 1898; the aggregate of the bonds maturing on January 1 is $29,904,952 ....There was a decline of seven and one-half cents in the price of December wheat in Chicago ....Marshal Blanco and Secretary Congosto called on Consul-General Lee, in Havana, and expressed their condolences on the death of President McKinley's mother.

Tuesday, December 14.—The American federation of labor, in session at Nashville, adopted resolutions opposing the annexation of Hawaii ... Marquis di Rudini has reconstituted the Italian cabinet....A fire at Dover Castle, England, destroyed the eastern portion and the officers' quarters....Spain's minister of marine is paying attention to the improvement of the navy.

Wednesday, December 15.—Ex-Secretary of State Foster says that the Hawaiian government will turn to Great Britain if annexation is defeated....At the meeting of the national board of trade the proposition to establish a postal savings bank system was adversely commented on....It is understood that the committees of the striking engineers and the employers in Great Britain have reached an agreement as to the three leading points in dispute, freedom of employment, piece work and overtime....The liberal party in Hungary has adopted Premier Banffy's bill for the provincial extension arrangement between Austria and Hungary.

Thursday, December 16.—The President has nominated Attorney General McKenna to be an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court....Secretary of the Treasury Gage submitted a currency revision bill to the house committee on banking and explained its provisions; the bill was subsequently introduced in the House....Prince Henry of Prussia sailed from Kiel for China amid great enthusiasm.... The Swiss federal assembly has elected Eugene Ruffy to be president of the Confederation; he is a radical....Alphonse Daudet, the French novelist, died suddenly in Paris....William Terriss, the well-known English actor, was stabbed to death at the entrance to the Adelphi theatre in London.

Friday, December 17.—President McKinley made a long list of appointments, headed by those of Nathan B. Scott, to be commissioner of internal revenue, and William W. Thomas, Jr., to be minister to Sweden and Norway....Carl Schurz was re-elected president of the civil service reform league; resolutions were adopted commending President McKinley for his recent extension of the classified service....Alfred Harmsworth, of London, has loaned to Lieutenant Peary the Arctic steamer Windward for his projected polar expedition.

Saturday, December 18.—Secretary Alger was engaged in planning relief expeditions to the Klondike region....The Japanese minister in Washington made another statement, declaring that his government had no designs whatever on Hawaii....The trial of the French deputies accused of complicity in the Panama canal scandals began in Paris; Émile Arton testified to the disbursement of 2,000,000 francs to

influence members....A Russian squadron, it was announced at St. Petersburg, has entered Port Arthur with the consent of China, and will winter there.

Sunday, December 19.—Senator Chandler has written a letter protesting against what he calls impossible currency legislation, and saying that Congress should adjourn in May....The German cruisers Deutschland and Gefion arrived off Spithead last night. Prince Henry of Prussia landed at Cowes and proceeded to Osborne house, where he dined with the Queen ....A dispatch from Christiania says the political situation has become critical and it is feared that Sweden will seek an occasion for armed intervention in Norway.

Monday, December 20.—The commissioners appointed to audit the Bering Sea damage claims have reached an agreement as to most of them; the awards amount to about $1,000,000 ... The British far eastern squadron is said to be at Talicmoan, and, according to a correspondent, is expected at Wei-Hai-Wei this winter; if true this would indicate that Great Britain is working in harmony with Japan... M. Meline, the French premier, stated in the chamber of deputies that the French government was as one with the United States on the question of bimetallism....Serious conflicts have occurred at several barracks in Prague, during the last few days, between Czech and German soldiers ....The funeral of Alphonse Daudet was held in Paris, M. Zola delivering an oration at the grave.

Tuesday, December 21.—At the meeting of the cabinet the proposed revision of the civil-service rules was discussed, and it was decided that members of the cabinet should submit in writing suggestions as to the modifications they may consider necessary....Josiah Quincy, Democrat, was reëlected mayor of Boston by a plurality of about 4,000....The United States gunboat "Bancroft" was fired on by the Turkish forts at Smyrna on the night of December 4, the entry of ships into Smyrna at night being prohibited; the Turkish government apologized ....It is believed that Japan and England are acting in concert to preserve China from disintegration....According to a dispatch from Shanghai a German-Chinese commission has been arranged to settle the boundaries of the occupied district of Kiao-Chow; it is evident that the occupation will be permanent.... Princess Hohenlohe, wife of the German imperial chancellor, is dead.

Wednesday, December 22.—The Canadian government has received the award of the arbitrators appointed to deal with the claims of Bering sea sealers against the United States government; the award is $464,000, with two claims reserved, that of the "Black Diamond" for $5,000 and the "Ada" for $1,000....Japan does not protest against the annexation of Hawaii, but wants assurances that her interests will be protected....Russia has been granted permission by the Chinese government to winter a squadron at Port Arthur....China has accepted from Russia 120,000 Berdan rifles, to be paid for five years hence....The Chinese are provisioning Port Arthur and will reconstruct the forts there, Russia supervising and furnishing the money.

Thursday, December 23.—The Bering sea award is regarded by officials in Washington as a practical victory for the United States, little or nothing being given to the Canadians for prospective damages....The Chestnut Street national bank and the Chestnut Street trust and saving fund company, of Philadelphia, closed their doors....The freight passing through the "Soo" canal this year amounted to 18,218,400 tons....Renewed fighting has taken place in Crete, and twelve Christians have been killed by Mussulmans....An Indian newspaper severely criticizes the inefficient handling of British troops in the fighting in Afridiland.

Friday, December 24.—The Coliseum at Chicago, the huge building in which the last Democratic national convention was held, was completely destroyed by fire....An appeal to the American people for contributions for the relief of the suffering people of the island of Cuba was issued by Secretary Sherman by direction of the President....The Pope's encyclical on the Manitoba school question was published in Rome; the rights of Roman Catholics according to the federal argument are pointed out, and the encyclical says that, in the event of these being unobtainable, Roman Catholics should provide their own schools.... Russia is negotiating with the government of New South Wales with a view of procuring shipments of meat to Vladivostock....The native levies of the Kassala garrison have captured the Dervish post at El Fashar; the Dervish post at Asabri has also been invested....The Dervishes are marching against the Anglo-Egyptian forces, with Berber as their objective point.

Saturday, December 25.—Ex-Chairman Kurtz, of the Ohio Democratic State committee, has become the favorite candidate for United States Senator from Ohio among Mr. Hanna's Republican opponents ...No uneasiness anent the possibility of war over the dismemberment of China is felt in London....A Grecian gunboat which attempted to leave the Gulf of Ambracia was fired upon by the Turkish fort at Prevesa; the Greek ambassador to Turkey has been requested to obtain a friendly explanation ....The Japanese imperial diet has been dissolved before the house of representatives had started a discussion of the motion of no confidence in the cabinet....General Pando's forces in Cuba are reported to have suffered considerable losses at the hands of the insurgents.

Sunday, December 26.—General Miles, commander of the army, and other officers are said to favor a change in the uniforms of the army by which the cavalry would be attired like foreign hussars and the infantry and artillery in buff and blue....It is reported from Shanghai that seventeen British warships are off Chemulpo, Korea, to support the British consul's protest against the King's practical yielding of the government of Korea to the Russians...Count Matsoukita, the prime minister of Japan, and the minister of marine, have resigned; it is probable Marquis Ito will be the new premier ....It is said that Japan has offered to assist the officers at Peking in drilling the Chinese army, and to consent to a postponement of the payment of the war indemnity.

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Monday, December 27.—The State department makes another appeal for relief of the reconcentrados in Cuba, many thousands of whom are in a starving condition....The Russians have occupied Kin-Chau, an important point north of Port Arthur; Prince Henry's German squadron arrived at Gibraltar on his way to China.

Tuesday, December 28.—Mr. Sefton, the Canadian minister of the interior, who has come to Washington to consult Secretary of War Alger, says an arrangement mutually beneficial to both countries can be made for the relief of the Klondike miners....Three hundred and seventy-five applications for patents were received at the patent office, the highest record for one day in the history of the office....It is said that Japan will certainly oppose a permanent Russian occupation of Port Arthur. The military party in Japan is eager for action....A correspondent who has arrived at Havana from General Gomez's camp states that the general is in Sancti Spiritus and is able to concentrate 10,000 men under his command....A special dispatch received in London from Shanghai says that the British and Japanese fleets have anchored at Port Hamilton, a small island south of Korea.

Wednesday, December 29.—President McKinley signed the bill prohibiting pelagic sealing by American citizens in Behring Sea, and also the importation of sealskins into the United States....William J. Linton, an engraver, poet, and political writer, died in New Haven, Conn., aged 85....The French have occupied Odienne and Sambatigila, in West Africa....The French minister for foreign affairs will convene an international conference for the neutralization of the Newfoundland banks during the fishing season....The Korean government has opened the ports of Mokpo and Chenampo to foreign trade....Fire destroyed one-third of Port au Prince, Hayti....Right Hon. William E. Gladstone celebrated his 88th birthday.

Thursday, December 30.—The American Historical Association, which has been meeting in Cleveland, Ohio, adjourned after electing George F. Fisher president....Extreme silverites object to Senator Faulkner as chairman of the Democratic congressional campaign committee, and he will probably retire from the committee....A dispatch from Peking says four British war vessels are off Chemulpo, with a view of upholding the rights of J. McLeavy Brown, the British superintendent of Korean customs ....The representatives of the Powers have refused to permit the Turkish government to replace 4,500 time-expired troops in Crete.

Friday, December 31.—Representative Dingley, chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee, claims that the revenue from January 1 to July 1 will exceed the expenditure.... Mint Director Preston estimates that the world's production of gold in 1897 will be $240,000,000, 20 per cent. more than in 1896; the product of the United States is estimated at $61,500,000.... The consolidation of New York, Brooklyn, and adjacent territory into Greater New York became effective at midnight....The Armour-Leiter wheat deal ceased quietly in Chicago, the price remaining at 95....A compromise has been effected by which the British and Russian customs agents will work the Korean customs together....China refuses to agree to a foreign control of the internal revenue in order to obtain a British loan... General Pando's campaign against the Cuban rebels has come to an abrupt end, owing to a lack of supplies for his troops ....A dispatch received in Paris from Cairo announces that a French expedition has occupied Fashoda, on the Nile....The mutilated body of General Sir Henry Havelock-Allan has been found in India.

Saturday, January 1.—The new Cuban cabinet is regarded in Washington as ensuring home rule in its broadest sense for the island....A Cleveland (O.) firm has received an order for four million tons of iron ore from Cardiff, Wales ....China has yielded to the demand of the German ambassador at Peking for the dismissal of the commandant of the Chinese garrison at Tsao-Chow, because of the use of threatening language to the German missionaries there.... England is pressing China to declare Port Arthur a free port....China is reported to have given consent to a Russian survey for a railway to Port Arthur as a branch of the Russian Trans-Manchuria railway....Hungary has agreed to maintain the *status quo* provided Austria adheres to the present reciprocity arrangements....The provisional government of Cuba was formally inaugurated in Havana.

Sunday, January 2.—Governor Bushnell of Ohio openly declared himself a candidate for United States senator against Senator Hanna; there is fear of disorder at the organization of the Ohio legislature....A British regiment in India was attacked by rebel tribesmen, and is hemmed in and cut off from communication with Sir William Lockhart....The sixtieth anniversary of the celebration of the Pope's first mass was observed at the Vatican....Great excitement was caused in Cairo by a report that the Dervishes were planning a northward movement; two regiments of British troops were ordered to the frontier.

Monday, January 3.—On December 31 the public debt, less cash in the treasury, amounted to $999,111,567, a decrease for the month of $10,114,899....Secretary Gage decided to call in all the outstanding $100 silver certificates on account of the discovery of a dangerous counterfeit....Democrats, with the aid of a few anti-Hanna Republicans, controlled the organization of both branches of the Ohio legislature; Mason, Republican, was elected speaker of the House by a vote of 56 to 53....Speaker Reed delivered an oration at the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of Girard College, Philadelphia... The British government declares that any Chinese port opened to one power must be opened to all....Li Hung Chang has been recalled to power at Peking, and his memorial on the defence of the country is being considered....The Spanish government will send 5,000 troops to Cuba at the end of January, and further troops, up to 14,000, will be sent to the island if needed.

Tuesday, January 4.—Rumor credits the French with occupying the island of Hai-Nan, off the south coast of China....Great Britain, it is stated, will refuse to recognize any special rights granted at any Chinese port to any particular power.

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INQUIRIES ANSWERED

WILL you kindly inform an admiring reader of your instructive magazine what England's motive is in pushing forward her troops in the Soudan? Does she mean to annex the entire lower Nile, in the same way as she has got a foothold on its upper waters, and as she already practically controls Egypt?

It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance to civilization in England's determined struggle in the Soudan with the Khalifa's forces. It is hardly possible either to conceive of the difficulties of the task which the Anglo-Egyptian army, under Sir Herbert Kitchener, has undertaken, to oppose the Dervish hordes of the desert and wrest from their cruel and malignant grasp the still unconquered region that lies between Berber and Khartum. It is to recover this region for commerce, and to put an end to the fanatical rule of Mahdiism, which shut up and finally murdered "Chinese" Gordon in Khartum, and to render Egypt, the Suez Canal, and the ports of the Red Sea safe from the attacks of the constantly revolting and aggressing native tribes of Nubia and Dongola. The Nile expedition, after fighting almost every step of the way, has advanced as far as Berber, and recovered the whole of the Soudan up to the junction of the Atbara with the Nile. From Berber to Khartum and the Mahdiist arsenal, on the opposite bank of the Nile, of Omdurman, is the last and final stage in the path of the expedition, and though a halt is at present made at Berber, to open permanent communication with Suakim and Massowah, strategic ports on the Red Sea, and with Kassala, on the confines of Abyssinia, the advance on Khartum and recovery of the last vestige of the region under the Khalifa, may be looked for before Spring.

Regarding this arduous work, which England has assumed single-handed, a word may be said of the unfair imputation of selfishness and "land-grabbing." Of the charge against England, she might well be exonerated, on the plea of good service rendered, which she can well make use of in defending her financial control of Egypt. Fortunately, just as we were about to reply to our correspondent, our eye lit upon a passage, in the English correspondence of "Harper's Weekly," in which the writer exculpates England from the charge of selfishness in her military occupation of the Soudan. Says the writer: "I wonder how many readers of 'The Weekly' clearly understand that England is beating back barbarism there and placing the black population under civilized law for no selfish purpose? American manufacturers enjoy every privilege of trade in Egypt that is exacted by the British. When Khartum falls, American trade will be as welcome as British. In Egypt, as elsewhere, England throws open to the whole world, without reservation, every advantage that she herself reaps from an expenditure of blood and treasure which other nations in her place would regard as invested for their own exclusive benefit. If France, Russia, or Germany controlled Egypt, American imports would be penalized. Whatever other objections, therefore, may be raised to a British occupation, it is obviously to the material interest of the United States, no less than to that of all the world, that England should succeed in her mission of 'painting the Nile Valley red.'"

A dispute has arisen as to whether the Secretary of State succeeds to the United States Presidency, in the event of the death or removal of both the President and the Vice-President. Please inform a reader of the magazine and member of the Home University League.

The Constitution provides for the succession of the Vice-President in case of the death, removal, resignation or disability of the President, and gives Congress power to provide what officer shall succeed in case of the death, removal, etc., of the Vice-President. In 1793, Congress provided that in such case the President of the Senate should succeed, and then the Speaker of the House of Representatives. This was of doubtful constitutionality, and attended with some inconveniences and dangers. Hence Congress, in 1886, provided that in such case the succession should next pass to the Secretary of State, then to the Secretary of the Treasury, then successively to the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Interior, and the Attorney-General. See Jameson's "Dictionary of United States History, 1492–1895." (Puritan Publishing Company, Boston, Mass.)

Will SELF CULTURE answer the foling questions: The U. S. Constitution provides that when the election of the President of the United States is referred to the House of Representatives, each State shall be entitled to one vote. (1.) In case the representation from a given

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state, *e. g.*, Indiana, stands seven Republicans and six Democrats how is it determined where the vote of the State shall go? (2.) How if the delegation should be evenly divided politically? (3.) What was the original object of this provision of the Constitution?

1. In this case the Republicans would cast the vote.

2. In this case there would be no vote cast.

3. Because it was the theory that the Union was one of States of equal political importance in federal matters. This was one of the compromises of the Constitutional Convention.

The only protracted contest was in 1801 between Jefferson and Burr. For an exhaustive treatment of the whole subject see articles in "The Forum" for December (1897), and January (1898).

Please inform me what are the present populations of Germany and of Prussia, and state what in the latter (Prussia) is the average amount of income per head of the population. If you give the figures of the latter in thalers or marks, please give the value of these coins.

In round figures, the population of Germany, at the close of the year 1895, was a little over 52 millions, of which there were in Prussia 32 millions. In Prussia, the estimated total value of incomes was, in 1890, 10,000 million marks, or 2,500 million dollars. The average income per head of the population is stated on good authority to be 342 marks, or $85.50. Approximately, the value in our currency of the mark (100 pfennige) is 24 cents, and of the thaler (3 marks) 72 cents.

I am studying for an electrical engineer and have been one year at college. I am obliged to leave, however, and in the meantime would like to get a position where I could be learning something about the business and at the same time earning a little. Will you kindly advise me?

The best thing you can do, manifestly, is to get a position in some establishment where you may be kept daily in touch with operations in electrical matters, until such time as you can get back to college. We cannot inform you where you can procure such a position — probably not in your own city. It may be necessary for you to go to New York or some other large place, where the chances are always greater of obtaining employment. The Westinghouse Electric Company, of New York, employ a large number of hands. It may be advantageous to address them a letter, or write to Munn & Co., publishers of the "Scientific American," 365 Broadway, New York. The field for employment for a young man having some knowledge of electrical matters seems a promising one, when we contemplate the various uses to which the science is being daily applied.

Your "Magazine of Knowledge" contains so much food for thought that at this late day I have just digested the contents of the September number. Among the editorials in the number above named is one which deals with the Zionist Movement. In this you quote "a prominent opponent of the project in Austria," as having just said that: "The Jew prefers to remain where he can fatten the best." It is further stated that "this may be a harsh judgment, but the Jew himself is mainly responsible for it, since he is of an intrusive and parasitic race," etc. I trust you will not consider it impertinent on my part if I ask the following questions:—

1. If the Jew is "responsible for the harsh judgment" on account of his "intrusiveness," etc., who or what was the cause of the development of such characteristics in the Jew?

2. Were the Spanish Inquisitors, Christians, in all senses of the word?

3. Why were the Jews recalled by Spain, after having been banished from that country?

4. Is there a law in Morocco, prohibiting the emigration of the Jews?

5. Why were Jews prevented from learning trades in the early centuries (1500–1600 A.D.)?

Your favor has reached us commenting on an editorial in "Self Culture" for September anent the Jews and the Zionist movement in the Holy Land. We hope you will not deem us lacking in courtesy, and least of all in tolerance, if we do not reply to the questions you put to us. There would seem to be small purpose to be served by entering into any controversy over the historical attitudes of the nations towards the Hebrew race. But when questions, such as the Zionist movement, come up for present day discussion, it is incumbent upon any journalist who desires to be useful to his readers, in considering popular movements, that he shall take all facts dispassionately into view. The Zionist movement, while it has its supporters, has also had and has those who oppose it; and

it is at least allowable in an Editor, in taking note of the arguments *pro* and *con*, that he shall explain and illustrate the reasons why a movement of the kind has met with national and individual hostility. This could only be done by referring to the prejudices against the Semitic race, on account of its exclusive and unsocial bearing, and from its subsisting in large measure upon the labor of other races by extortion and usury.

This is an old indictment, and, alas! an historic one; and though we all may now regret the ill-usage to which Jews have in the past been subjected, in the rough fashion of the times, one has in fairness to show the inciting cause of that persecution, and to speak, as kindly as one can, of the racial characteristics, social exclusiveness, and financial extortion of the Jew in all ages and countries in which he has found a footing and been permitted to ply his trade. It is this aspect of the Jew as a usurer and speculator in many of the least reputable trades, and not persecution from religious motives or racial prejudice, that has led to his being recently driven out of many communes in Russia. In these communes it is ascertained as a fact that the Russian peasants are heavily involved with Jewish usurers, who keep them constantly impoverished by taking advantage of their necessities, and for small advances at exorbitant interest swallow up their holdings by foreclosure. In many instances, money-lenders of the Shylock type manage to get into their hands the proceeds of crops for several years in advance, and this for very inadequate, indeed ruinous, advances.

When Jews shall abandon their tribal customs, cease to consider their Gentile brethren as unclean, and intermarry with them, and abandon their usurious proclivities — then will the prejudices which the nations visit upon them be likely to pass away and they will become like other men.

Be kind enough to explain the difference between language and grammar. Also, please enlighten me as to the number of voyages Columbus made, and give me, if you will, the dates of them.

The distinction between language and grammar will be seen if you keep in mind the definition of their respective terms. Language, briefly defined, is human speech considered as a whole. The language a man speaks in is his mother tongue, as distinguished from that made use of by a foreigner in his mode of giving expression to his wants, desires, and thoughts. Grammar, on the other hand, deals with the language or form of speech we use or make use of in writing, and by its rules, etc., we are enabled to speak and write any given language correctly.

Columbus made *four* voyages to the New World. (See SELF CULTURE for November 1895 — Vol. I., page 488.) The dates of these voyages are as follows: (1) August 3, 1492 to March 15, 1493. (2) September 25, 1493 to June 11, 1496. (3) May 30, 1498 to November 14, 1499. (4) May 4, 1502 to November 7, 1504. He died at Valladolid, May 20, 1506.

In the town from which I write we are troubled with inexperienced teachers. Will you kindly deal with the subject in your interesting pages, and, if possible, show how we can effect a reform?

It has been asserted by a writer in "The Forum" — (Mr. John Gilmer Speed, Vol. 20, 1896) — that "the men and women of America, neither as parents nor as citizens, display any really great concern for the education of their children. In sentimental fashion they will glow over the benefits of education, and the orator will always be sure of applause when he declares that that land will always be free, from whose every hilltop may be seen a school-house and a church, — twin sentinels of intelligence and piety." But this interest is only superficial, save in a few favored localities, where education is esteemed at its true worth. In such localities the schoolmaster is a person of consideration, and ranks with the clergyman in the social scale. But such localities are few and far between, and even in college towns, we find that the professor is not looked up to with the respect which ought to be his due. As regards the ordinary schoolmaster, he is, we know, treated with scant courtesy by nearly all classes, old and young, and is generally thought to be an unfortunate who has adopted teaching because "there was no other mode of livelihood open to him."

It is wrong, to be sure, that school-teachers should be held in such social and professional disesteem; but at present it is not entirely unfair to the great body at least of teachers of primary and grammar schools in this country, for, generally speaking, neither their attainments nor their ideals entitle them to a much higher regard. Without proper training or preparation, without innate taste, and without love for what should be the highest and most sacred calling for men and women, they have adopted the profession of teaching and have degraded it to a trade. The responsibility for this lies with the citizen and the taxpayer and their representatives, who fail to see that no one, save a specially trained man or woman should be put in charge of a class-room. These citizens, school-com-

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missioners, school trustees, and others have not realized that there was a necessity for a higher type of teacher; and so long as petty politicians are permitted to monopolize these offices there is little likelihood that the partisans of competent teachers and educators will be able to effect any reform.

The great cause which hinders public education is the fact that the people, citizens and voters alike, have no genuine appreciation of what learning is. If their interest and appreciation amounted to anything, they would see to it that the school trustee and the commissioners were themselves persons of education and cultivation. They, in turn, would take care that none but experienced or properly trained and competent teachers were hired to educate the young. Any school that is conducted by a teacher who is himself uneducated and untrained in the art of teaching is likely to do as much harm as good. As things are, our teachers, though after a perfunctory examination they acquire a certificate to teach, in six cases out of ten are young women with no heart in their work, and who intend to follow the profession only until they marry. In other cases, they are young men who seek to support themselves while they are studying for what they consider a real profession. In still other cases, they are thoroughly incompetent and unfitted by nature for teachers; and in very rare instances we find the serious person who is earnestly pursuing a life-work because he or she is interested in it and conscious of its nobility. Teachers, then, should be men and women of better training and of more liberal cultivation. Were that the case, the profession of teaching would have honorable precedence over all vocations and be held on an equality with other learned professions.

See "The Forum," Vol. 20, pages 247–256; also "The Educational Review," Vol. 9, pages 209–229.

Please tell me in the next issue why the following problem cannot be worked and proven. A and B agree to cut a ditch 100 rods long for $100.00. On examining the ground they find it hard to work at one end, and easy at the other. So they agree that A shall dig on the hard portion at $1.25 per rod, and B on the other at 75 cents per rod. How much must each one dig in order that each may have $50.00 when the work is completed?

I have asked a great many teachers to explain this to me, but have got no satisfaction and so appeal to SELF CULTURE.

A little thought will show you that your problem cannot be solved, if all the conditions are to remain as you put them. To make the problem solvable, one or more of the conditions must be relaxed. You must either make the number of rods elastic, or else vary the rate each shall be paid for his work and consequently the amount each shall receive when the cutting of the ditch is finally completed. As the problem reads, there are only 100 rods of a ditch to be cut, and as the rate is fixed which each shall be paid (viz. 75 c. and $1.25 respectively), then to arrive at any conclusion of the results, one must cut 40 rods to give him $50, at $1.25 per rod, while the other has only 60 rods left him to cut, which would give him but $45. Were the number of rods left out of the problem, and each was to get (at 75 c. and $1.25 respectively) $50, then a solution could be arrived at by finding the number of rods to be cut, which would be 106⅔ rods.

I should like to know how to pronounce the name of the Polish novelist, the author of "Quo Vadis," and to learn any facts concerning his life. Also, kindly explain the meaning of the title of the novel.

The author of "Quo Vadis" (whither goest thou?) is Henryk Sienkiewicz (pronounced Syen-kye'vich) who comes, we believe, of an old and noble family. He was born in 1846 in Lithuania, which since the partition of Poland has become part of Russia, and was educated at the University of Warsaw. He is, we understand, a Roman Catholic, and manifests in his stories a deep spirituality and much fervid and exalted thought. As a novelist he has been ranked with Scott and with Dumas; he possesses the keen humor of the latter, coupled with Scott's love of the historic and chivalric. In depth of tragic feeling he, however, excels them both. Though intensely Polish in his tastes, he combines the cosmopolitan with the patriot, for he has seen the world in many of its phases, and is as much at home on the banks of the Tiber or the Seine as on the banks of the Dneiper and the Nile. In 1876 he came to this country with a band of his expatriated countrymen and countrywomen, among whom was Madame Modjeska and her husband, and settled in southern California with the object of founding an ideal Polish community. The project, for some reason, was not successful, and Sienkiewicz returned to his native land and there devoted himself to journalism and a literary career, varied by occasional wanderings over Europe. His writings embrace psychological novels and historical romances, inspired by patriotic sentiment. Most of these have been reproduced in English and issued in Boston, the

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translation having been done by Jeremiah Curtin. Among Sienkiewicz's works are: "Tartar Slavery" (1880); "Pan Michael" (1887); "With Fire and Sword" (1890); "The Deluge" (1892); "Without Dogma" (1893), translated by Iza Young; "Bartek Victorious, or Children of the Soil" (1894); and "Quo Vadis: a Narrative of the Time of Nero" (1896).

Besides these, Sienkiewicz has written a number of short stories, chiefly dealing with Poland and Polish people, and several which relate to American life. Two of the latter are "Lillian Morris," and "The Comedy of Errors." The best of the others are "The Third," "The Victor," "Hania," "Na Marne," and the collection known as "Charcoal Sketches," from which "God's Will," the strongest of the author's shorter pieces, is taken. "Let us Follow Him," a philosophical religious story of the Crucifixion, from the volume entitled "Hania," has, with other booklets, extracted from the author's larger writings, been published in separate form. These varied works show Sienkiewicz's versatility as well as great imaginative gifts and power of enthralling the reader, at times by his pathos, at other times by the terrible realism and tragic force of his pen.

The United States consul at Panama reports that England is seeking to get control of the Panama Canal. In a comment upon this, reference is made to the "Clayton-Bulwer" treaty. Will you kindly explain the object and provisions of this treaty?

The Clayton-Bulwer treaty was an arrangement, come to in 1850, between this country and Great Britain, the negotiators being Secretary John M. Clayton, of Delaware (President Taylor's régime), and Sir Henry Bulwer. The treaty related to establishing communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by means of a ship canal across Nicaragua. It forbade the exclusive control of communication by either party. Contradictory constructions have since been placed upon the treaty, and the claims are as yet unadjusted. The treaty, moreover, was supposed to remove the British protectorate over the Mosquito coast.

Please inform a reader of SELF CULTURE how Nansen, the Arctic explorer, fitted out his expedition to the North Pole — I mean, under the auspices of what government did he go?

The expedition to the North Polar Sea under Fridjof Nansen, which, set out in June 1893 in *The Fram*, was aided by a grant of 200,000 kroner (about $60,000) from the Norwegian Storthing, or Parliament. In 1882, and again in 1888, Nansen made voyages in Arctic seas, and gained much knowledge of the drift currents in Polar waters, and of Eskimo modes of living in high latitudes, and so fitted himself for his later great undertaking. His journey across Greenland, in 1888–89, was deemed a great feat.

Will you kindly inform me regarding the Mariner's Compass and its action in the case of a ship crossing the Equator? Does the needle change from pointing north and south when the vessel crosses the Equator — I mean, does it point to the south in the southward course of the vessel after it crosses the Line? Pray tell me your authority, and state where the compasses are manufactured which are used by the United States Navy.

The Compass now adopted for general use in the United States Navy, having reached the highest point of excellence, is manufactured by Mr. E. S. Ritchie, of Boston, Mass. It is described by Prof. B. F. Greene, Superintendent of Compasses, U. S. Navy, as follows: "The general principle of the compass is this — a bar of magnetized steel apart from disturbing forces, having a free horizontal motion on a pivot, points in a definite direction, or to that point known as the Magnetic North Pole. To that direction all others may be referred, and hence a ship is kept in any desired course. The U. S. Navy compass has this distinctive peculiarity — a buoyant card in a liquid-resisting medium; the mean density of the card being so adjusted to the density of the liquid as to produce a small *downward* pressure upon the pivot in the ordinary forms of ship and bout compasses, or a small *upward* pressure in the special form of "tell-tale," or cabin compasses. The compass-bowl is moreover provided with a self-adjusting expansion chamber, by means of which the bowl is kept constantly full, without the show of air bubbles on the one hand, or the development of undue pressure on the other from changes of temperature.

There is probably no fact so evident to the seaman, or navigator as this, that the compass does not on its face tell the truths which its readings would apparently indicate. And, further, there is no subject which merits more diligent and careful study than this one of "the compass error." There are three causes which produce error in the compass, named respectively, local attraction, variation, and deviation. As your question concerns the compass as it influenced by variation, we shall speak only

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that phase. The magnetic pole is not identical with the true geographical pole of the earth, and since the needle is drawn to the magnetic pole, the line of its direction varies from the direction of the true meridian. The angle which measures this difference of direction is called the variation of the compass and is named Easterly when the north end of the needle is drawn to the Eastward, and Westerly when drawn to the Westward, of the true Geographical North. The term variation expresses the action of the earth's magnetic force in a horizontal plane; but that force has another action upon a freely suspended needle as in the case of a compass. Along the line of the magnetic equator, which varies but little from the earth's true equator, the needle alone lies in a horizontal plane. Proceeding southward, the North Pole of the needle is drawn downward at an increasing angle called the dip, or inclination, until it reaches a value of 90 degrees at the magnetic pole; but proceeding northward, the north end of the needle inclines upward: hence the sliding weights on the frame which carries the needle, for overcoming this inclination.

See Ency. Brit., Vol. VI., page 225; Vol. XV. 219; X. 187; article Variation. XV. 250; XVI. 163; XVII. 274.

(For the above information, SELF CULTURE is indebted to the courtesy of Lieut. Charles S. Ripley, U. S. N., in charge of the local Hydrographic Office, Masonic Temple, Chicago.)

Please name for me the Seven Wonders of the World, and state who were the seven wise men of Greece and what the sayings that made them famous.

The Seven Wonders of the ancient World are: the Pyramids of Egypt; the Hanging Gardens of Semiramis at Babylon; the Temple of Diana at Ephesus; the Statue of Jupiter at Athens, by Phidias; the Mausoleum; the Colossus at Rhodes; and the Pharos at Alexandria.

The Seven Wise Men of Greece and their maxims inscribed in the temple of Apollo at Delphi, are: Solon of Athens — "Know thyself;" Chilo of Sparta — "Consider the end;" Thales of Miletus — "Suretyship is the precursor of ruin;" Bias of Priene — "Most men are bad;" Cleobulus of Lindus — "Avoid excess;" Pittacus of Mitylene — "Know thy opportunity;" and Periander of Corinth — "Nothing is impossible to industry."

I am in search of some material on German literature, especially on German comedy in comparison with English comedy. Kindly indicate the sources of any articles on the subject.

If you can get access to any of the following works you will be able to arrive at the information you desire: —

"History of German Literature," by James K. Hosmer, published by Jones and Company, St. Louis. This work traces German literature to a recent date, and gives in the last chapter of the work a good comparison between English and German literature.

"Studies in Low German and High German Literature," by M. W. MacCallum, published by Kegan Paul, Trench and Co. (London). This work deals also with English in contrast with German literature.

"German Thought," by Karl Hillebrand, published by Henry Holt & Company, New York, embraces a course of six lectures on German literature and the influence of its thought, given at the Royal Institution of Great Britain.

Perhaps the best work for your particular purpose is the "History of German Literature," by W. Scherer, published by Charles Scribner's Sons in two volumes (New York). In the last chapter of Vol. II. you will find a description of the dramatic literature and its influence upon the outer world. German comedy is styled heavy and wanting in real wit, the best comedy being borrowed and appropriated from the French. See the excellent article on German Literature, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, page 522 of Vol. X.

You may learn a great deal from contributions to periodical literature. A comparison of the German and English drama is given in an article by S. Whitman, in "The Chautauquan," Vol. 21, pages 163–170.

"German Literature of To-day" is treated of in a series of articles in "The Athenæum," London, for 1890–1–2–3–4, by R. Zimmermann.

In the "Fortnightly Review," Vol. 53, pages 292–301, is an excellent article on German literature, with reference to the English, by William E. Gladstone. These works are usually found in any good library.

Will you kindly inform me in your next issue how many hours there were in the eighteenth century?

The eighteenth century began Jan. 1, 1701. As we reckon our common year there are 365¼ days in each year, making in 100 years 365.25 days. If we multiply this by 24 hours in each day, the result will give us 876,600 hours in the century. Or we may count the 365 whole days in each year by the hours in each,

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making 8,760 hours in the whole days of each year, and in the 100 years, 876,000 hours. Then we have the 25 extra days (in the leap years) of 24 hours each, making 600 extra hours, which, added to the 876,000, makes 876,600 hours. The solar year, or equinoctial year, contains 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes and 46 seconds, which, multiplied by 100 years, gives the hours in solar time, which is always a little less than the common year.

Please tell me why all the statues of Augustus Cæsar have a little boy at the Emperor's feet. I have asked about this and have been told that it probably symbolizes the birth of the Roman Empire.

The "History of Ancient Sculpture," by L. M. Mitchell (published by Dodd, Mead & Co., New York), has this to say regarding the statue of Cæsar Augustus: "It is one of the most beautiful of all the statues preserved from early Roman times. The cuirass is elaborately worked; near the neck appears the god Cælus, holding his drapery arching above his head; Sol, in his *quadriga*, preceded by a winged figure representing Dawn and Morning Red, to indicate that by Augustus's achievements a day of glory had dawned. Prosperity seems symbolized by the reclining goddess Tellus, at the base of the cuirass, holding a horn of plenty. Divine blessing is represented by Augustus's tutelary deities, Apollo, with his harp and griffin, and Diana, with quiver and torch, riding her deer. A cupid at Augustus's feet, riding on a dolphin, may have reference to the Emperor's supposed descent from Venus. The form of the child is so defective, that we marvel that the sculptor of so fine a statue could have been content with such accessories."

Again, in the "Iconographic Encyclopædia," we read, after describing the breastplate, that: "Possibly the cupid on a dolphin at the foot of the statue refers to the supposed descent of the Julian family from Aphrodite." The statue was discovered in 1863, in Livia's celebrated villa *ad Gallinas Albas*, on the Via Flaminia, and is now in the Vatican.

Other authorities concerning Augustus Cæsar give no explanation of the child figure; we must therefore suppose its presence to be allegorical, unless it might be taken for Drusus, Augustus Cæsar's favorite stepson, who died early. The Emperor had no sons, we think, of his own, though he had nephews and stepsons, one of the latter (Tiberius) succeeding him.

I should be glad to learn through the pages of SELF CULTURE to whom Whittier referred in his poem "Snow-Bound" as the "Crazy Queen of Lebanon." I have sought, but sought in vain, for light on the subject, and come with confidence to SELF CULTURE.

The person referred to in Whittier's "Snow-Bound" as the "Crazy Queen of Lebanon," is Lady Hester Stanhope, granddaughter of the first Earl of Chatham, an eccentric gentlewoman who in the early years of her womanhood resided in Somersetshire, England. In the village where Whittier lived as a child a lady of fantastic and peculiar temperament [Miss Williams?] visited at his father's home. This lady was a well-known character in the surrounding country and believed herself to be inspired. On receiving a message from the Lord, apprising her of His coming upon earth at a certain place designated in the East, she crossed the Atlantic with this message and spent the greater part of a long life travelling over Europe and Asia. She fell in with Lady Hester Stanhope "a woman as fantastic and mentally strained as herself" and lived with her for some time on the slopes of Mount Lebanon. She, however, finally quarrelled with her, over two white horses with red marks on their backs, which suggested the idea of saddles, on which her titled hostess expected to ride into Jerusalem with the Lord. Whittier relates that a friend of his found this woman, when quite old, wandering in Syria with a tribe of Arabs, who, with the Oriental notion that madness is inspiration, accepted her as their prophetess and leader. At the time referred to in "Snow-Bound" she was living in a lonely farmhouse near a village close by the poet's home. An interesting account of Lady Hester Stanhope, in her rôle as the "Crazy Queen of Lebanon," may be found in Kinglake's "Eothen," a well-known classic of Eastern travel. The account of her adventures reads like a fairy-tale. See her biography in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XXII., pages 449-450.

Will you through the pages of SELF CULTURE give me what information you can regarding the profession of Architecture, its desirability, and the necessary studies to be pursued in preparation? Please also name any good schools where a satisfactory training may be had.

Architecture is now regarded as a fine art. It involves, however, so many engineering elements and is so dependent upon them, that it must be treated both as an art and as a science. But the genius of the American people is so mechanical that the danger in this country lies

in placing too much emphasis on architectural education, upon mathematics and construction, and too little upon artistic elements. France, the foremost country in modern times in which architecture is treated as a fine art, is the most successful in the practice of it. In recognition of these facts, the best schools of Architecture in this country are to be found in connection with Art Institutes, thus combining technology with high art, the practical in connection with the ornamental. The study of Architecture for a profession certainly seems a wise choice for a young man to make. The profession of an architect is pre-eminently a useful one, and in the prosecution of its duties one may hope to find a suitable reward for the time given to it and for the labor and outlay expended.

The course of study in the professional schools of large cities—Boston, New York, Chicago, etc., includes four years, though in all of these schools there is also a two years' course, which equips the student for good practical work in architecture in all its essential applications. The mathematics includes algebra, trigonometry, and a thorough training in descriptive geometry and its application to lights and shadows. The purely architectural instruction during the two years' course consists of practice in the handling of instruments, architectural designing, general construction, specifications and estimates, construction with reference to ventilation, sewerage, etc., modelling in clay, composition of ornament, pen and ink and water-color work.

There are examinations arranged for applicants desiring admission to any architectural school which are suited to the needs of prospective students. If you write a letter of inquiry to any of the Institutes of Technology or Art Institutes of Boston or New York, the addresses of which are often found in magazines and newspapers, you will see by the catalogues they issue the studies you will need to pursue to be admitted. There are certain advantages in attending a school located in a large and growing city where buildings of many classes are in process of construction, and where students may see practical work going on, and be able to inspect manufactories of iron, terra cotta, and other building materials.

As a member of the Home University League, will you kindly state some of the benefits of a School Library, or give me an outline for a brief paper on the subject?

Nothing is of more importance in education than furnishing young people with the best literature. The schools of the present time, it is to be feared, are not putting forth proper efforts to direct the taste and confirm the habit of reading what is good rather than what is bad. Young people should have the best, and that only, in all departments of knowledge. They should see nothing, hear nothing, read nothing, but healthy thought on every subject. They should have held up for their emulation the noblest examples, and they should be governed by the wisest precepts. This is particularly true of their reading during the school age. Nine-tenths of all our information is acquired in reading. The choice of what should be read is a most responsible one, for a reading lesson is twofold in its nature. Little folks learn to read and learn to think at the same time, and the subject-matter of the first reading lessons is as important as the gradation and simplicity of the matter selected. When they have overcome the purely mechanical difficulties of the art of reading, they should be taught to read and to enjoy the simplest works of the standard writers.

Among the important results arising from the reading of the standard classics in the schools, is the cultivation and training of taste and imagination. A taste for books can always be gratified — a gratification giving not only the deepest pleasure, but bringing the reader directly into range with the greatest moral influence. Boys and girls whose tastes are trained to the enjoyment of Scott's "Ivanhoe" and Irving's "Sketch Book" will not become infatuated with sensational literature. The cultivation of imagination provides the young student with resources, for it stimulates originality of thought and expression, and it may develop a latent genius.

All earnest workers in the educational field have watched with pleasure the growing interest in the question of a school library. The idea is by no means a new one; it was long ago advocated and put into practice. Leading educational authorities recognize the vast possibilities of the school library in connection with work in the public school. The energy and enthusiasm aroused give promise of the most fruitful results. The school library movement is the outgrowth of the other movement which has put the masterpieces of classic authors into the hands of pupils in our public schools. We believe that the school libraries will continue the good work of bringing all that is sweet and wholesome in literature nearer to our young people. They will also put a new life and spirit into the school work.

The school library is a part of the school equipment, and, like the apparatus for teaching the sciences, belongs to the school-room. Prof. William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, says in regard to this subject: "It is, in my

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opinion, a most desirable thing that our school children should be required to read unabridged masterpieces rather than selections. The best books are none too good for children who read at all — the best romances, poems, biographies, nature-studies, narratives of travel and adventure."

School libraries may contain inexpensive volumes, properly graded and well adapted for everyday use; arranged on a broad and liberal plan, including in its treasures the old-time favorites, the classic fables, folk-lore stories, and other productions of the great masters and popular writers in fiction, history, science, and literature. Boys and girls who have few if any of these works at home will thus have an opportunity to read good books. Even a little manual of science or a biography may be the means of furnishing some bright youth with an agreeable and useful hobby, a source of comfort and profit for all after-years. No one can estimate the influence of a well-selected school library in moulding character, with a well-informed, sensible teacher to advise, direct, and suggest.

Someone has published a theory that the Earth is not round but flat, and has offered argument in support of the theory. I do not recall the name of the person, but would deem it a favor if you would state some of his arguments. While I do not believe the theory, I should, however, greatly like to know some of the arguments in proof of the unentertainable contention.

The theory that the earth is not round but flat has been again and again discussed and found adherents who have united to form a society for the spreading of the doctrine, called the "Zetetic Society of Great Britain." The Zetetists have a system of Astronomy adapted to their theories, and have maps and charts of the earth which illustrate their peculiar principles. The founder of the Society is known under several names, among them Parallex, Rowbotham, Tryon, Goulden, and Dr. Birley. Parallex published a book on Zetetic philosophy about the year 1864, denying the rotundity of the earth, and denouncing Newton and other philosophers of his time. We are unable to learn where the book was published, but extracts from it, with diagrams of portions of the earth in accordance with Zetetic astronomy, may be seen in "Knowledge," a magazine of science published in London by the now deceased astronomer, Richard A. Proctor. The editor of "Knowledge" exposed the fallacies of the theory at the same time. These extracts are contained in Volumes III., IV., and V. (1883–84). The Zetetist argument against the earth being round may be seen in "Knowledge," Vols. III., IV., and V. The explanations necessary to understand them make it fruitless to attempt to enumerate them in this reply. Parallex issued other publications, but his works are not found in any of the Libraries we have consulted. He has published pamphlets abusing A. R. Wallace, Tyndall, Huxley, Herbert Spencer, Sir Edw. Beckett, and many other eminent men.

I shall be grateful if SELF CULTURE will suggest some thoughts bearing on the value, to all classes of the community, of Books and Reading.

(1) Books.— Of all the privileges we enjoy at this the close of the nineteenth century there is none, perhaps, for which we ought to be more thankful, than our ready access to books. "Books," says Jeremy Collier, "are a guide in youth and an entertainment for age. They support us under solitude, and keep us from being a burden to ourselves. They help us to forget the coarseness of men and things; compose our cares and our passions, and lay our disappointments asleep." When we are weary of the living, we may repair to the dead, who have nothing of peevishness, pride, or design in their conversations. A century ago, not only were books extremely expensive and cumbrous, but many of the most delightful books were still uncreated — such as the works of Scott, Thackeray, Irving, Dickens, Bulwer Lytton, George Eliot, and Trollope, not to mention living authors. Macaulay, we know, had all that wealth and fame, rank and talents, could give; yet, we are told, he derived his greatest happiness from books. Sir Geo. Trevelyan, in his charming biography of the historian, says that Macaulay has told us that his debt to books was incalculable; how they guided him to truth; how they filled his mind with graceful and noble images; how they stood by him in all vicissitudes — comforters in sorrow, companions in solitude — the old friends who are never seen with new faces; who are the same in wealth and in poverty, in glory and in obscurity. There was no society in London so agreeable that Macaulay would have preferred to the company of Sterne or Fielding, Horace Walpole or Boswell.

Gibbon says that he would not exchange his love of reading for all the treasures of India. We may sit in our library and yet be in all quarters of the earth. We may travel round the world with Captain Cook or Charles Darwin, with Kingsley or Ruskin, who will show us much more perhaps than we ever should see for ourselves. So delightful, indeed, are

our books that we must be careful not to neglect other duties for them; in cultivating the mind we must not neglect the body.

(2) Reading.—"If," says Sir John Herschel, "I were to pray for a taste which should stand one in stead under a variety of circumstances, and be a source of happiness and cheerfulness to one through life and a shield against its ills, however things might go amiss and the world frown upon me, it would be a taste for reading. Give a man this taste as an instrument and a mode of pleasurable enjoyment, with the means of gratifying it, and you can hardly fail of making a happy man, unless indeed you put into his hands a most perverse selection of books." The selection of good books to read is, no doubt, far from easy. In olden days books were rare and dear. Our ancestors had difficulty in procuring them. Our difficulty is to know what to select. Books are innumerable; our hours for reading are, alas, very few. In reading it is quite important to select subjects in which one is interested. There are thousands of books worth reading, and nobody can read them all. There have been many admirable essays written "on the choice of books." Emerson's essay on "Books," in the volume "Society and Solitude," gives a useful list of the great books of the world. It is hard to lay down a course of reading, since such should vary with the needs of each individual. The writings of certain authors are adapted to all ages and conditions. Every studious youth may with benefit make an early acquaintance with George Eliot's writings while they are still young, but they may be studied for new meanings at every stage of life, just as Shakespeare's plays may be. Youth is not the time for any novelist who does not believe that something beside the actual is possible and necessary. Such authors as Cooper, Prescott, Thackeray and Scott, are masters which may be trusted at all times.

We have space here to speak only in a very general way concerning the delights of reading. There are, of course, some books which we must "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest." But there are exceptions, which affect by far the larger number of readers; it is probably better to read such quickly, dwelling only on the best and most important passages. In this way, no doubt, we shall lose much, but we gain more by ranging over a wider field. We may, in fact, apply to reading Lord Brougham's dictum regarding education, and say that it is well to read everything of something, and something of everything. In this way only can we ascertain the bent of our own tastes, for it is a general, though not of course an invariable, rule, that we profit little by books which we do not enjoy. See "The Pleasures of Life," by Sir John Lubbock — the chapter on the Choice of Books. The Macmillan Co., N. Y.; "Chats with Girls on Self Culture," by Eliza Chester, published by Dodd, Mead and Company, N. Y. Chapter on "What Shall We Read?"; Frederic Harrison on "The Choice of Books" (price 75 c.). The Macmillan Co., N. Y.; Carlyle's Edinburgh Rectorial Address, and Dr. Porter on "Books and Reading."

Will you please inform me (1) which are the chief wine-growing countries in the world? Also, please state (2) what was the world's wheat crop for 1897, and what proportion of the whole was raised by this country.

(1) The world's wine product is raised chiefly in Italy, Spain, and France. These three countries, collectively, produce from one and a half to three thousand million gallons annually. The other contributing countries, besides the United States (which raises about one hundred million gallons per annum), are Austria-Hungary, Germany, Switzerland, Bulgaria, Turkey, Roumania, Greece, Russia, Portugal, and Algeria.

(2) The world's total wheat crop, for 1897, has been estimated by the Hungarian Minister of Agriculture (see N. Y. "World" Almanac for 1898, p. 163), at a little under two and a half billion bushels, of which the United States raised four hundred and ninety-two million bushels. Russia, Asia Minor, Egypt, British India, Australasia, and Canada produced about a billion bushels; leaving the remainder to be contributed by Great Britain, Argentina, Chile, and the countries of Central Europe.

Will SELF CULTURE kindly supply a subscriber and League Member with an outline of the plot of Shakespeare's "Macbeth"?

"Macbeth" is pre-eminently the drama of conscience. It is a wonderful history of temptation, in its various actions upon the human soul, the most wonderful, perhaps, to be found in the whole range of imaginative literature. The real history of "Macbeth," or rather all that history tells of the character, and, consequently, all that Shakespeare had to work upon, may be summed up in a few words. In the year 1034 the Scottish monarchy came to a pause upon the overthrow of Malcolm II. by a Norwegian chief, who subdued a great part of the country, especially the northern and eastern portions. The remainder of the people raised up a king, in the person of Duncan, whose mother was the daughter of Malcolm. He advanced against the Norwegian in his absence and was slain by

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Macbeth, who in turn overran the land, and was made king. Subsequently the English invaded the country, led by Siward, Earl of Northumbria, and the adventurous Macbeth fell on the field of battle (A. D. 1057). Such are the incidents upon which this masterpiece of Shakespeare is founded. All the supernatural portion of the drama as developed by the witches, the character of Lady Macbeth, who in fact is the leading figure, the murder of Duncan in cold blood, and the duel, are the poet's own creations. Macbeth can scarcely be called an historical drama, for in no other play purporting to be founded upon historical facts has the author wandered more from the line of history. The play opens with the thunder and lightning scene; witches appear and vanish, indicating the supernatural element which is to pervade the drama; then enter King Duncan and the attendants.

A bleeding soldier now arrives announcing the victories won by Generals Macbeth and Banquo; Ross follows with the intelligence of the death of the rebel, the Thane of Cawdor, whose title the king bestows on Macbeth. Banquo and Macbeth, returning home from battle, encounter the witches on the lonely heath performing their incantations; a colloquy ensues, during which they hail him as Thane of Cawdor, and "king that shall be hereafter." Banquo is told, "thou shalt beget kings though thou be none," and, as each is about to express a natural curiosity to know more, the witches vanish. They next encounter Rosse, who informs Macbeth of his being made Thane of Cawdor in place of the dead rebel, thereby fulfilling the witches' first prediction; after this comes the interview with the king, who intimates to the new Thane his intention of visiting him.

The next scene reveals Lady Macbeth reading the letter from her lord announcing his honors and the witches' strange prediction. Lady Macbeth's criminal ambition creeps out, and an attendant announcing the approach of Duncan prompts her to her fatal resolution. Macbeth arrives, followed shortly by Duncan, who is hospitably received. Then ensue those terrible dialogues between the tempted and temptress, the vacillation of Macbeth, the cruel, treacherous murder, the proclamation of the criminal as king, completing the second prediction of the witches. This is followed by further crime, by the murder of Banquo, and the attempt on his son, who escapes; the gloomy remorse of Macbeth, as shown in the supper scene, when the ghost appears to his troubled conscience. The counterplot commences in the departure of Macduff to England for aid, which brings about the murder of Macduff's wife and children — the first step taken by Macbeth to work out his own retribution; another scene with the witches, who prognosticate, though with prevarication. Macduff, hearing of the cruel slaughter of his wife and children, urges the English king to give him aid, and he returns to Scotland like an avenging spirit. Then follow the death of Lady Macbeth, the march of Siward and Macduff, the extraordinary fulfilment of the witches' prediction, the duel between Macbeth and Macduff, the death of the former, and the proclamation of Malcolm.

Such, in brief, is the outline of the plot in the drama. There are points to be examined in the drama which stand out in bold relief and from which great moral truths can be gathered. The famous incantation scene portrays one of the most subtle follies of our nature, a folly common alike to the educated and the ignorant — that restless longing to pry into the secrets of the future, a feeling deeply rooted in our nature, seeking to know what Providence has kindly shrouded in impenetrable darkness. In the case of Macbeth, the responses of the witches fell upon a mind already inflamed with ambition. We see Macbeth plunged in gloomy reveries, giving vent to his morbid longings, and, like all weak, vacillating characters, endeavoring to juggle with his reason. The character of Macbeth is too contemplative to be great in action. There is the conception of a purpose clear enough, though without determined resolution. Left to himself he would have gone on musing and soliloquizing, a harmless, undecided, vacillating man; but the moving power is supplied in the person of his wife. How different from the hesitating, halting Macbeth! Her language shows firm purpose and energetic action. Despite her stern, unrelenting will, despite her unwomanly boldness, her cruel determination, there is a great deal to admire in the character of Lady Macbeth. In studying the drama one may come to the conclusion that the lesson intended to be conveyed by Shakespeare is not so much the plain and universally admitted fact, that murder will inevitably meet with retributive punishment, as the working of the influence of a bad but strong-willed woman upon an irresolute, morally weak, and indifferent man. The self-accusing nature of murder is shown in the subsequent fate of Macbeth.

See "Dublin University Magazine," vol. 65, page 280; "Macmillan's Magazine," vol. 16, page 76; "New England Magazine," vol. 1, page 297. See, also, answers to inquiry in "SELF CULTURE," for December 1896, page 272, of vol. IV.; together with Gervinus's "Commentaries," Schlegel's "Dramatic Art," and Dowden's "Mind and Art of Shakespeare."

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NEW INFORMATION NOTES

At a recent meeting in London of the Royal Photographic Society, Professor Gabriel Lippmann described his system of color photography, whereby a photograph showing the colors of nature is obtained by a direct process and with one exposure of the plate. The film, which might be of any sensitive substance, he explained, was exposed, developed, and fixed in the usual way. Two conditions, however, must be observed. The film must, in the first place, be transparent and grainless, and, in the second, it must be in contact with a metallic mirror during exposure. The effect of the mirror, which was formed by running a layer of mercury in behind the plate, was to reflect back the incident colored rays and thus make the incident light waves stationary. These stationary vibrations, falling in the interior of the sensitive film, impressed their own structure upon it, and, by virtue of the structure thus imparted to it, the brown deposit of silver, when viewed by reflected white light, appeared clothed with the same colors as were possessed by the image in the camera. The colors were produced by "interference" in the same way as those of the soap-bubble or mother-of-pearl. That this was their cause M. Lippmann said was proved by the fact that the tints of a negative changed if it were damped, in consequence of the gelatine swelling slightly and thus altering the structure of the silver deposit. The colors produced by this process were true and bright, provided that exposure and development had been properly conducted; they were, moreover, completely fixed and resisted the action of light and time. He had not yet succeeded in taking prints from his negatives, but was convinced that to do so would be found possible.

Many readers of SELF CULTURE, we know, are interested in the sale of foreign postage stamps and are curious to learn what they fetch in the current market. Here are the prices which certain stamps brought at a recent sale in London, England: Great Britain, 1s. green octagonal, unused, £5 5s. Naples, 50 grana, lake, unused, £3 7s. 6d. Roumania, 1858, 5 paras, unused, £3 12s. 6d. Switzerland, Basle, 2½ rappen, £5; ditto, the double Geneva, £20 2s. 6d. Ceylon, 4d., rose, imperforate, damaged, £4 4s. India, Service Stamp, 8as., unused, £10. Cape of Good Hope, woodblock, 1d., red, unused, £9 15s. Mauritius, post paid, 1d. vermilion, £6; ditto, 2d. blue, £7; ditto, 2d. blue, error "Penoe," £8. Transvaal, 1d. red, with inverted surcharge, £5 15s. British Columbia, 2½d. red, imperforate, an unused pair, £46. Canada, 7½d. green, unused, £7 10s. British Guiana, 1856, 4c. magenta, £15 and £18; ditto, provisional, 1862, 2c., border of grapes, £7. Trinidad, the "Lady M'Leod" damaged, £10. St. Domingo, 1st issue, 1rl. green, unused, £4 15s.; ditto, 1rl. yellow, unused, £7 2s. 6d. New Zealand, no watermark, 2d. blue, perforated and unused, £17. Tasmania, ditto. 1d. red, unused, £9. Western Australia, first issue, 2d. red, unused, £8 10s; ditto, 6d. bronze, unused, £3.

There are three things above all others which are indispensable for the modern man—physique, scientific culture, and character. Those things must be acquired or perfected at school. If they are not, the probability is they will never be acquired or perfected at all. The modern schoolmaster admits the necessity for character absolutely. The necessity for culture he also admits. But when that culture is demanded to be scientific, he does not give his "unfeigned assent and consent;" he consents with a grudge. In like manner he admits the necessity for physique; but he insists that it shall be the physique which he has always been accustomed to; the physique of mere muscle, of broad and stalwart shoulders. But the doctor looks deeper; he demands the physique of a well-developed, but not over-developed, nervous system; of a trained, but not exhausted, brain; of pure and rich blood; of sound internal organs and well-regulated functions. In short seeing the mighty tasks which the modern man has to undertake at home and in every part of the world, he demands that the modern boy shall be so trained in every part as to be a mental, moral, and physical gladiator, prepared for any conflict, of mind, character, and physique, which our own or any other part of the world may challenge him to. The schoolmaster alone cannot give us gladiators of this class. But the schoolmaster, with the doctor, can, and must.

Considerable interest has been evoked in England recently by the lecture of Mr. A. J. McMillan, of Rossland, B. C., on "The Mineral Resources of British Columbia." In the course of the lecture, Mr. McMillan stated that £20,000,000 worth of mineral wealth had already been produced in British Columbia, much of it during the last twenty years, from placer mines in different parts of the province. The most remarkable developments, however, during the last year or two had been in West Kootenay, the lode mines of which last year produced £850,000 worth of precious metals. In 1892 the lode mines were not producing gold; in 1894 they produced 6,000 oz., and last year 62,000 oz. of gold. The gold mines near Rossland, the centre of the Kootenay goldfields, would this year produce 100,000 oz. of gold, and mines were already developed which would be capable of producing 600,000 oz. per annum when railways and smelters were provided to deal with the ore. The output this year would be double the output of last year. Some of the mines were paying big dividends. At present these were mostly owned by Americans, but Englishmen were becoming interested. The silver mines of West Kootenay were also heavy producers, and last year furnished over 3,000,000 oz. of silver. The silver and lead in these mines were remarkably rich. Last year, 12,000 mineral claims were staked out in British Columbia, 8,000 of them being recorded in West Kootenay. Rossland, the chief town in the new goldfields, which to-day has a population of 7,000, with banks, churches, and railways, was three years ago non-existent. There was plenty of wood and water for mining purposes, and no native troubles existed. As to the Yukon and Klondike regions, Mr. McMillan advised great caution on the part of those who proposed to go to that country. It was a curious fact that the

Klondike was prospected for gold in 1887 and again in 1893 without success. The first great finds were in 1896.

It is the *sterilizing* of water—that is, the rendering of it devoid of all traces of microbes—which is to be aimed at in a perfect system of filtration. No doubt a perfectly sterile water, says Dr. Andrew Wilson, in "Science Jottings," in which there is no sign of germ life, represents almost an impossibility of ordinary household economics. Nor is it necessary that water should be absolutely sterile to be perfectly safe for drinking purposes. One must not fall into the common error of supposing that all germs contained in water are disease-producing. Ordinary pure drinking-water, like air, is full of harmless microbes, which have no effect whatever on our health. It is the presence of disease germs in polluted water which constitutes our great danger, and if we are to trust to filtration to save us from germ-attack, it is clear that process must be capable of sterilizing the water; otherwise, it is of no avail. Now the ordinary filter, so far from sterilizing water, purifies it very imperfectly, and I should say that filters of the charcoal type especially may become highly dangerous after even a few days' use, from the fact that dirty charcoal is a very favorite breeding-ground for germs. I repeat that, short of using a filter which will sterilize water, it is a far better and infinitely safer and simpler process for the householder to boil his supply. What one regrets to note is that so many people place dependence on filters under the idea that they are rendering water absolutely germ-free. The sooner this erroneous notion is corrected, the better will it be for our health and safety all around.

Is all this fuss about infection by third persons necessary? inquires an English medical contemporary. It is perfectly well known that in general hospitals which receive infectious diseases, and in which, even if these are placed in separate wards, the doctors and the students pass direct from one ward to another, any diffusion of the disease throughout the house is of the rarest possible occurrence, while, we would ask, how often is it not the case that medical men take their own children with them on their rounds without any harm resulting? One of the most eminent of the physicians practicing in London used to take his children with him in his carriage when he visited the fever hospital, and either leave them at the door or let them play in the garden till he came out, when—soaked with infection, as some people would say—he would get into the carriage and drive away with them. Did they catch scarlet fever? Not at all. Let us put to one side all this dread and fear of infection by third persons. Such a thing may happen now and then, but it is not thus that infection is ordinarily spread, unless, perhaps, we make an exception in favor of varicella and of small-pox in unvaccinated communities.

According to Nikola Tesla, "of all conceivable methods of generating electricity, nothing in the present nor in the future is likely to compare in facility and economy with the waterfall." Of all methods of generating power, the utilization of a waterfall, he says, is the simplest and least wasteful. According to him, even if it were possible, by combining carbon in a battery, to convert the work of a chemical combination into electrical energy with very high economy, such mode of obtaining power would be no more than a mere makeshift, bound to be replaced sooner or later by a more perfect method, which requires no consumption of any material whatever.

An important discovery of asphaltum deposits in the island of Barbadoes, of the West Indies, says the "Industrial World," is now reported. The mineral is called manjak, and it bids fair, according to the accounts, to outrival, in point of utility, all similar substances found in various parts of the world. The manjak is black, possessing high lustre, and having a bright conchoidal fracture, in appearance closely resembling newly broken pitch. In Barbadoes these newly discovered deposits are found very near and sometimes even upon the surface of the ground in seams varying from a foot to two feet in thickness, running usually at an angle of about forty degrees and in close proximity to rocks.

The following table, says the "Scientific American," has been compiled by Dr. E. W. Parker, of the United States Geological Survey, giving the coal output of the principal countries, for the years nearest 1896, for which figures could be obtained. The table will appear in the Report of the Survey for 1896. The long ton is, of course, 2,240 pounds and the short ton 2,000 pounds.

Country.	Usual unit in producing country.
Great Britain (1896), long tons	195,361,260
United States (1896), long tons	171,416,390
Germany (1896), metric tons	112,437,741
France (1896), metric tons	29,310,832
Austria-Hungary (1895), metric tons	32,654,777
Belgium (1895), metric tons	21,213,000
Russia (1896), metric tons	9,079,138
Canada (1896), short tons	3,743,034
Japan (1893), short tons	3,400,000
India (1895), long tons	4,441,890
New South Wales (1895), long tons	3,737,536
Spain (1896), metric tons	1,878,399
New Zealand (1894), long tons	719,546
Sweden (1895), metric tons	223,652
Italy (1895), metric tons	305,321
Transvaal (1895), long tons	1,152,206
Queensland (1895), long tons	322,977
Victoria (1895), long tons	194,171
Natal (1895), long tons	153,951
Cape Colony (1895), long tons	87,985
Tasmania (1895), long tons	36,856
Other countries	2,000,000
Total in English tons	589,732,000
Percentage of Great Britain	33.1

The total under "other countries" includes China, Turkey, Servia, Portugal, United States of Colombia, Chile, Borneo and Labuan, Mexico, Peru, Greece, etc.

The rôle played by dusts of different kinds as factors in the causation of disease, says the Paris correspondent of the "Medical Record," is more important than is generally admitted. The metallic dusts, by their irritative action upon the membranes of the finer bronchial tubes, frequently give rise to bronchitis and pneumonia; and all are familiar with the calico-like appearance of a lung impregnated with coal-dust deposit. But it is to other dusts than these that are due many cases of eruptive fevers, diphtheria, pneumonia, and almost always tuberculosis. We refer to the dusts that are concealed in the cracks of floors, along the cornice,

on the tops of window-frames, and in the angles of walls. It is for this reason that modern hospital wards should be built with rounded corners and vaulted ceilings, without cracks or "confractuosities" of any kind.

The year 1897, says the "Industrial World," was memorable for its payment of debts. This praiseworthy undertaking was shared in by many classes, but notably by farmers and by business men. Among its causes, two may be mentioned, the very patent fact that the debts existed, a legacy of several years of depression, and, further, the irksomeness which the indebtedness created, under these conditions, to the debtor. The farmer was aided by generous harvests and high prices. He had been recently schooled to economical living and the high tide of his income was directed largely towards liquidating his obligations. Mortgages shrank or shrivelled up entirely, the aggregate decrease throughout the west reaching an enormous amount. Business men, too, have gone extensively into the liquidation of debts. Their trade, likewise, has prospered. Manufactories have hummed. Merchants have been unusually busy. And the year just closed has witnessed a considerable reduction in their liabilities.

The uttermost parts of the earth have never been so sought out as at present, and the Antarctic is now attracting attention as well as the Arctic. A Belgian expedition sailed a few months ago for the Antarctic region, and the Royal Geographical Society, London, has determined to take upon itself the responsibility of organizing a private expedition to the same, though the expectation is that government aid will contribute to the success of the important undertaking.

The statement that Bessemer's improved process of making steel had saved to the railroads of this country millions upon millions of dollars, says the New York "Times," finds prompt and unqualified corroboration from railroad men. One of the great advantages that the steel rail has conferred upon the railroads everywhere is an increased speed of trains, with a proportionate decrease of risk. Laid on a well made and solid roadbed, the best steel rails enable powerful locomotives to draw heavy trains safely at a rate of speed that would have been considered dangerous two or three decades ago.

Very recently American locomotive builders have received orders for fifty-eight locomotives from foreign countries, making a total of about 200 orders for locomotives placed here within six months for foreign account. A number of the engines are for European railways. Most of the contracts were bid for by British locomotive builders, and Americans received the orders because their prices were the lowest submitted. This seems to indicate that British locomotive builders are rapidly losing their hold of foreign markets.

The authorities on pineapple culture on the east coast of Florida consider $300 an acre a very conservative estimate of net profits per annum if the fruit is raised and handled with ordinary care and prudence. Some growers during the last season have realized as much as $400 per acre. Here are the net profits from each acre of pineapples grown on the Indian River, $300; from six acres, $1,800; from ten acres, $3,000, and so on up to thirty, forty, fifty, and even sixty acres. These are not imaginary figures, but actual returns from the crop of the past year.

Once again St. Helena has become the prison of Great Britain. Seventy-two years ago Napoleon entered on his six years' exile there, fretting and fuming in his superb loneliness, with nothing to survey but those seven-and-forty square miles which the little island is composed of. To-day three kinglets live in exile there — namely, Dinizulu, the son; Ndabuko and Tshingana, the brother and half-brother of the great Zulu, Cetewayo. It is not the mere fact of St. Helena being the prison that makes one speak of the exiled chiefs as "Black Napoleons," for the Zulu, since the beginning of the century, has been the greatest warrior in South Africa. When the English first landed at Port Natal, Chaka, the chief, dominated the whole of the south-eastern seaboard, from the Limpopo to Cape Colony. Chaka was killed by his brother in 1828, and succeeded by another, called Dingaan, who warred against the Boers and was defeated by them in 1838. The Cape Government took military possession of the country in 1841, and felt bound to blot out the Zulu under Cetewayo in 1883–84. When the great chief died, or was poisoned, in 1884, the quarrel was continued by his son, Dinizulu, and in 1888 he and his uncles were banished to St. Helena.

The Smithsonian Institution, Washington, has come into possession of the Hallett-Phillips collection of Indian implements and antiquities from the Potomac Valley. It is reputed to be the largest collection of its class in the world, and its value is enhanced greatly by the careful arrangement and record of individual specimens. The collection consists of over 20,000 pieces, principally spear and arrow heads, stone knives, hammers and scrapers, fragments of pottery, and soapstone utensils.

A yacht service for transatlantic travel, says the "Scientific American," is now under consideration. It is proposed to build a 2,000-ton four-masted schooner equipped as a yacht. The idea is to carry no freight and only saloon passengers. There are many for whom seasickness has no terrors and they would welcome such a yachting trip across the Atlantic. It is believed that there are enough people who would like to go in a sailing ship with all modern improvements to make the venture a success financially. Twin screw engines of low power would be provided to be used only in the event of a dead calm. Refrigerating chambers, evaporators and distillers would form a part of the equipment, so that all the comforts of the best liners would be secured. The service would, of course, be a summer one.

A stove handle bar, says the "Industrial World," is the newest German invention for the bicycle. These bars are hollow at the end and are closed by a screw cap. In the bar a small piece of punk is placed after the manner of the Japanese stoves, and as the punk smoulders away the bar grows warm. The punk can be bought for a few pennies per package, and each piece lasts several hours. The idea is not the most foolish on earth, for in riding a machine with this heating device the sensation is anything but disagreeable.

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THE WORLD OF THOUGHT:

ABOUT BOOKS AND THEIR AUTHORS

Tennyson's "In Memoriam," Illustrated

The magnificent elegy, "In Memoriam," the most characteristic product at once of Tennyson's genius and of the questioning but reverent spirit of his time, hardly lends itself, one would say, to illustration. Yet how we may be deceived in regard to this, the edition of the work embellished by Mr. Harry Fenn's drawings, with a sympathetic preface by the Rev. Dr. Henry Van Dyke, makes plain. How the volume, which is sumptuously issued by Messrs. Fords, Howard & Hulbert, of New York, becomes in Mr. Fenn's hands a work of art, a note to the volume by the editor, setting forth the passages in the epic which lend themselves to illustration, will suffice to show. "One secret of the charm of 'In Memoriam,'" writes Dr. Van Dyke, "lies in the crystal clearness and delicacy of the glimpses of landscape which illumine the poem, opening windows in the dark walls of grief and looking out upon the silent, lovely consolations of nature. * * * There could be no better notes and illustration to 'In Memoriam' than the pictures of hill and meadow and garden, stream and tree and flower, which have been drawn for the volume by the hand of one whose devotion to art is the fruit of his intimacy with Nature, for he has lived with her long and loved her well." It is the descriptive interludes, pauses, and asides, as it were, of the poem that furnish the artist with suggestions for his pencil, and very charming indeed is the product. In addition to the glimpses of nature which head the cantos, there are pretty floral devices, artistic initial letters, and other characteristic head and tail-pieces which set off and enrich the volume. Besides these, there is, as we have hinted, the editor's thoughtful and appreciative introduction, and, what will doubtless be most valued, a luminous analysis of the nine divisions of the poem, or commentary on the great classic. To those who desire to read the great elegy understandingly, the value of the editor's work is earnestly commended, since without this commentary, or such as are to be obtained in other critical sources, there is much of poetic beauty, of sorrow-brooding thought, and especially of emotional reflection on life, death and immortality, in the hundred and thirty lyrics of which the poem consists, which will be lost to even the thoughtful reader. The poem, as a critic truthfully observes, has done much "to express and to consolidate all that is best in the life of England, its domestic affection, its patriotic feeling, its healthful morality, its rational and earnest religion."

Collected Series of the J. L. Stoddard Lectures

In how many different lights do people who travel see the world and the glory thereof? The man of culture sees cities, cathedrals, shrines of art, and the vast expanse and varied aspects of nature in a light altogether different from the rich but uneducated parvenu, or even from the moderately intelligent but unimaginative business man. The latter who takes an occasional but hurried holiday abroad rarely finds leisure to prepare himself to see just the sights he ought to see, or to appreciate them adequately if seen. Hence, when he looks upon the wonders of the old world—be it in architecture, painting, or in the thronged modern aspects of some famous mediæval city—his breast is unstirred by any emotion prompted by the historic memory, nor is his imagination fired by any reminiscence of a past in which mighty and, it may be, valorous deeds were done. True love for the interesting places and things to be seen by travel can only come with years of preparatory reading and study, and with the reminiscent or introspective habit of the reflecting student that leads one to recall vividly a bygone time, and to grasp the truth that the historic places we look upon have lived lives of their own and still eloquently speak to us of an absorbingly interesting, and often a fateful, past. If one has not had the advantages of education or of much preliminary study, in seeking to profit the mind by travel, to such we would earnestly commend the collected series of the John L. Stoddard Lectures, now being published, with profuse and elaborate illustrations, by Belford, Middlebrook & Co., of New York and Chicago. Those who know or have heard the celebrated platform entertainer, Mr. Stoddard, and their names must be legion, will be in part prepared for the treat before them in making acquaintance with these sumptuous and most artistic volumes. The Lectures are embellished with thousands of half-tone illustrations which are gems of art, together with reproductions of the graphic scenes exhibited by the lecturer on the platform. The letterpress consists of the entertaining and instructive talks familiar to those who have heard the eloquent lecturer. The series, of which there will, in all, be ten octavo volumes, will be found

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highly interesting as well as profitable investment by the numerous class of people who love travel, yet may be unable to gratify their taste for it, as well as by those, hardly fewer in number, who have seen and would possess a reminiscent treasury such as this of the famed countries and chief wonders of the world.

"Hymns that Have Helped" Under the title of "Hymns that have Helped," Mr. W. T. Stead, editor of the English edition of the "Review of Reviews," has made a collection, on novel lines and inspired by a broad Catholic spirit, of the most favorite Hymns, including national and battle hymns, and such as have figured conspicuously in some notable episode in human history, or have influenced and strengthened human life. The volume, which is in neat pocket form, is issued by the Doubleday & McClure Co., of New York, and comprises over a hundred and fifty of the choicest hymns selected from the various hymnals, including in many cases the original Latin versions of litanies, etc., and several battle hymns from German, French, Italian, and American sources. The special feature, however, of the compilation is the fact that the hymns selected are those that have been named by many eminent people, as having proved helpful in times of doubt or distress, or have, by their intrinsic worth or from early associations, incited to "the mood of the hero or the saint." They form collectively a universal ritual by which hearts are united and softened, and the souls of men purified and made fit for the Kingdom. Some account of the author and the circumstances that gave birth to each hymn is supplied, as well as an indication of how helpful it has been in meeting human need, so far as the editor has been able to gather this as the record of individual experience.

The Author of "Alice in Wonderland" As we are closing these pages, the news is cabled from England of the lamented death of the Rev. Charles L. Dodgson ("Lewis Carroll"), the humorist and scholar who wrote the world-wide nursery classics, "Alice in Wonderland," "Through the Looking-glass," and "The Hunting of the Snark." More clever and amusing, we had almost said sublime, nonsense was never penned than these mirthful extravaganzas for old and young. Their popularity has been great, and their fame, whatever else in literature lives, will endure. Nor is their reputation confined to English-speaking countries, since "Alice," at least, with the Walrus, the Carpenter, and the Cheshire cat, has been translated into almost every language of Europe. The humor of the books Lewis Carroll wrote is unique: it is the product of the drollest fancy, and of a mind not only strong in its creative force and its seeming serious composure, but that can disport itself, after the most inimitable fashion, for the enjoyment and delectation of youth. Nor are the books the priceless possession alone of the young, since the old, whose minds remain youthful, have also revelled in them, and grave men have been known to be convulsed with their quaint mirth. Bayard Taylor, we are told, used to stalk up and down pouring forth the Jabberwocky until his delight in the sheer poetry of the thing was whelmed in Homeric laughter. Commenting on the author's death, a New York contemporary observes that "he was, in his extraordinarily original field, as much a master of the comic spirit as Molière, and his death leaves an irreparable gap in modern letters. This, no doubt, seems excessive praise to those who have read 'Alice in Wonderland' in vain. It is true, we believe, that there are persons who resent the episode of the Walrus and the Carpenter as a violation of the laws of Nature; who cannot understand all this fuss about the Snark; who gravely ask you if a portmanteau word is to be found in the dictionaries. To them the gates of poetry are closed. They have never known the rapture of an uffish thought. A vorpal sword would be useless in their hands, and from a manxsome foe they would fly shrieking.

"Lewis Carroll was emphatically a poet. His humorous productions were the fruits of a strong intellect, turning for relaxation to sublime nonsense as to the divine afflatus, and in the realm of that nonsense preserving its poise, its sobriety, its constructive power, with the instinct of a poet. He lays down the most grotesque propositions, in the most preposterous terms, with an air of perfect seriousness. This is one of the secrets of the truest wit."

"How to Build a Home" To those seeking guiding counsel in the risky undertaking of building a home, with such aids as a brief compact manual can afford in the way of practical information, with illustrative examples and specifications in wood work, masonry, plumbing and electric-lighting, we commend Mr. Francis C. Moore's "The House Practical." (New York, Doubleday and McClure Co.) In brief space much may be acquired from this little book which will enable one who reads it to escape the pitfalls that lie everywhere around the man who says "Go to, I will build me a home!" The hints are the fruit, evidently, of wide experience and large personal knowledge.

G. M. A.

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EDUCATIONAL STUDIES FOR YOUTH:

WASHINGTON AS A STYLIST

No other statesman of equal rank has, perhaps, left so little behind him by which his literary ability can be judged, as has Washington. All his writings may be summed up under two heads; the first, his letters,— including, for convenience, his diary; the second, his Farewell Address.

In his early letters, he betrayed his deficient education by the frequent misspelling of words, by numerous errors in grammar, and by his style, which, though vigorous, was rough and abrupt. As time passed he corrected these defects in a marked degree, though with all his conscientious efforts, his diction never approached that of the scholar.

Through a mistaken idea of patriotism, Mr. Sparks, in his edition of Washington's "Writings," has eliminated from the early letters the most glaring blunders which were originally scattered over them. Nevertheless, there abound in great profusion such passages as the two following. The first is a short extract from his diary:—

"Feb. 15. Went to a ball at Alexandria, where music and dancing was the chief entertainment; however, in a convenient room detached for the purpose, abounded great plenty of bread and butter, some biscuits, with tea and coffee, which the drinkers of could not distinguish from hot water sweetened."

The expression "which the drinkers of" is inelegant, to say the least; while the plan of detaching a room for the purpose of serving refreshments in it, is certainly a novel one. What he probably meant to say was, that these refreshments were served in an adjoining room, convenient for the purpose.

The second example, which is taken from a letter, reads: —

"It is with the greatest concern I acquaint you, that Mr. Ward, ensign in Captain Trent's company, was compelled to surrender his small fort at the Fork of the Monongahela to the French, on the 17th instant, who fell down from Venango, with a fleet of three hundred and sixty batteaux and canoes, upwards of one thousand men, and eighteen pieces of artillery, which they planted against the fort, drew up their men, and sent the enclosed summons to Mr. Ward, who, having an inconsiderable number of men, and no cannon to make a proper defense, was obliged to surrender."

The most important fact, namely, that Mr. Ward was obliged to surrender, is stated both at the opening and at the close of the sentence. In the meantime the subject of the sentence, at first Washington himself, becomes respectively Mr. Ward, the French, and, at last, Mr. Ward again. There is a confusion of antecedents which results in ambiguity.

The chief cause of all this trouble was, that the writer endeavored to convey all his information in one sentence.

Notwithstanding its errors, this extract serves to illustrate his manner of writing a business letter. He would attack the point under discussion at once, and when he had expressed his opinion concerning it, would close his letter with little ceremony. When he gave directions, he gave them with great explicitness, leaving no one in doubt as to his intentions with respect to the subject in hand.

That portion of his correspondence which we may regard as letters of friendship, belongs to a later portion of his life than the letter above quoted, and is pervaded by a certain lofty kindliness of tone which cannot escape our notice. Even toward his most intimate friends, this quality was scarcely ever wholly suppressed: he was frank, but dignified.

There is one exception to this rule. In a letter to the Marquis de Chastellux, dated April 25th, 1788, Washington writes in a light, humorous vein, strikingly different from that to which we are accustomed. A part of the letter runs as follows: —

"My Dear Marquis:

In reading your very friendly and acceptable letter, of 21st Decr., 1787, which came to hand by the last mail, I was, as you may well suppose, not less delighted than surprised to meet the plain American words, 'my wife.' A wife! Well, my dear Marquis, I can hardly refrain from smiling to find you are caught at last. I saw by the eulogium you often made on the happiness of domestic life in America, that you had swallowed the bait, and that you would as surely be taken, one day or another, as that you were a philosopher and a soldier. So your day has at length come. I am glad of it with all my heart and soul. It is quite good enough for you. Now you are well served for coming to fight in favor of the American rebels, all the way across the Atlantic Ocean, by catching that terrible contagion — domestic felicity — which time, like the smallpox or the plague, a man can have only once in his life: because it commonly lasts him (at least with us in America — I don't know how you manage these matters in France) for his whole lifetime."

Washington continues at some length in this strain, and, before closing, discusses the

political affairs of the country with a little less than his wonted gravity.

In language and expression, the faults of this letter are not disagreeably prominent, and are almost overlooked in the pleasure its good-natured raillery affords us. Yet the Marquis must have had rather an exciting voyage to this continent, since Washington speaks of his "coming to fight in favor of the American rebels, *all the way across the Atlantic Ocean.*"

The parenthetical phrases are too numerous for the preservation either of force or of clearness; while the word "time," in the clause "which time, like the smallpox or the plague, a man can have only once in his life," is not only absolutely unnecessary, but is also a source of confusion, as long as one tries to find a place for it.

Admitting these defects, however, we observe that Washington has acquired a familiarity with the English language which he did not possess in the former extracts. In this his thoughts find utterance more easily, and have not the strained construction so evident in the others. He has apparently progressed in the art of expressing himself.

On the 20th of May, 1792, about four years after this epistle to the Marquis, he wrote to Madison concerning the propriety of making a valedictory address to the American people, on the occasion of his withdrawal from public life. This communication may be found, among other documents relating to the same subject, in Mr. Horace Binney's "Inquiry into the Formation of Washington's Farewell Address;" and the whole collection furnishes adequate evidence to prove that the President sought help in this matter from both Madison and Hamilton.

In the letter above noted, Washington mentioned in detail the points he especially wished to be treated. Madison's draft of the Address was brief, being merely a reproduction of the suggestions sent him.

The project was laid aside for the time, at Washington's re-election; but toward the end of his second term, it was again taken up. He drew up an outline for the address, including what Madison had previously written, and sent the whole to Hamilton. From this Hamilton composed his draft, which, after being revised by Washington, became the final Farewell Address.

The relative extent of the influence of its three compilers may be readily determined from a perusal of the successive drafts made by them. But a few selections will satisfy us as to whether Washington's style continued to improve or not.

We will first examine his letter to Madison. In this occurs the following sentence, one well worthy of our attention, for it is fearfully and wonderfully made:—

"I would fain carry my request to you farther than is asked above, although I am sensible that your compliance with it must add to your trouble; but as the recess may afford you leisure, and I flatter myself you have dispositions to oblige me, I will, without apology, desire (if the measure in itself should strike you as proper, or likely to produce public good or private honor) that you would turn your thoughts to a valedictory address from me to the public; expressing in plain and modest terms, that, having been honored with the Presidential chair, and to the best of my abilities contributed to the organization and administration of the government — that having arrived at a period of life when the private walks of it, in the shades of retirement, become necessary and will be most pleasing to me;—(and as the spirit of the government may render a rotation in the elective officers of it more congenial with the ideas [the people have] of liberty and of safety)—and that I take my leave of them as a public man, and, in bidding them adieu, retaining no other concern than such as will arise from fervent wishes for the prosperity of my country, I take the liberty of my departure from civil [life], as I formerly did at my military exit, to invoke a continuation of the blessings of Providence upon it, and upon all those who are the supporters of its interests, and the promoters of harmony, order, and good government."

This sentence numbers two hundred and forty-five words — only. The sense falls naturally into five distinct divisions. The first division relates to Washington's diffidence in making the request; the second, to the request itself, i. e., the preparation of an address; the third, to his appreciation of the honors conferred upon him, and to one reason — that of approaching age — for retirement from public [life]; the fourth gives a political reason for his retirement; and the fifth dwells upon the patriotism of his feelings.

In the first of these divisions, the expression, "I would fain carry my request to you farther than is asked above," is open to criticism, because he speaks of a request being carried and asked at the same time,—a thing manifestly incongruous. Moreover, a request can be carried no further, either literally or figuratively, than to the person of whom it is made. Hence, the better phrase would be: make a still greater request of you.

Passing for the moment the figurative language which mars the third division, we find in the fifth only such complications as might be looked for in a sentence of this length. He says, "and in bidding them adieu, retaining no other concern than such as will arise from fervent wishes for the prosperity of my country, I take the liberty of my departure from civil [life], as I formerly did at my military exit, to invoke a continuation of the blessings of Providence

upon it, and upon all those who are the supporters of its interests, and the promoters of harmony, order, and good government."

The first antecedent of "it," upon which he wished to "invoke the blessings of Providence," is his "military exit;" the second, his "departure from civil [life]," and the third, the one to which "it" undoubtedly refers, is the prosperity of his country.

In the phrase, "I take the liberty of my departure," "liberty" is used instead of occasion.

Now as to the figurative language in the third division: "that having arrived at a period of life when the private walks of it, in the shades of retirement, become necessary and will be most pleasing to me." "It" refers to the "period of life," and time can have no walks of either public or private character; life may have, time does not. Further, shades are of too fleeting a nature to walk *in*, even figuratively. We may walk *in* the *shade* of retirement, or *amid* the *shades*, but not *in* the shades. Lastly, the expression, "private walks" of life, signifies, in itself, complete retirement.

Madison, as has been said, merely reproduced Washington's suggestions in his draft of the Address; so we find this extract almost unchanged: "Being, moreover, still further advanced in the decline of life, I am every day more sensible, that the increasing weight of years renders the private walks of it, in the shade of retirement, as necessary as they will be acceptable to me."

Besides the tautological error noted above, it contains still another in the synonymous expressions: "still further advanced in the decline of life," and "the increasing weight of years."

It remained for Hamilton, in his draft, to clothe the thought in the most fitting terms: "And every day the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome."

We have now examined a long sentence of Washington's, and have seen how a portion of it was remodelled by Hamilton. We will now look at one of Hamilton's, and see how it prospered under the finishing touch of Washington. It is to be found in Hamilton's draft of the Address.

"Recollect, that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue, that to have revenue there must be taxes, that it is impossible to devise taxes which are not, more or less, inconvenient and unpleasant — that they are always a choice of difficulties — that the intrinsic embarrassment which never fails to attend a selection of objects, ought to be a motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it — and that a spirit of acquiescence in those measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies dictate, is, in an especial manner, the duty and interest of the citizens of every State."

The thought is clearly and directly stated, the clauses logically arranged and becoming longer and stronger as they approach the end of the sentence.

After leaving the hands of Washington, some of the force and clearness throughout has been lost, and the rhetorical effect weakened by the loose arrangement of the concluding clauses. It now reads: —

"To facilitate to them" (the representatives) "the performance of duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind, that towards the payment of debts there must be Revenue; that to have Revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment, inseparable from the selection of the proper objects (which is always a choice of difficulties) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue, which the public exigencies may at any time dictate."

The dependent clause at the end is decidedly Washingtonian. As a work of literary merit, if compared with what has a just claim to be called literature, the Farewell Address will most certainly suffer from the comparison. But in directness, in purity of thought and motive, it stands at the head of all our state papers. These qualities it owes to Washington. What credit may be derived from clearness, nicely-balanced sentences, and a more polished style, must be given to Hamilton.

Washington's early style was labored and full of mistakes, chiefly either of a grammatical or of an orthographical nature: a misuse of words, a confusion in the arrangement of phrases. In his later work, these smaller faults were corrected in a great measure; and his errors involved clauses instead of phrases, paragraphs instead of clauses. In all his writings he disclosed a tendency to use certain set expressions; as, for instance, at the time when a war with France was imminent, he spoke continually of his return to military life, as "reappearing on a public theatre."

His language was formal, — was stately, — even in an age of formality; but it lacked polish. His style, though direct, was heavy. His ideas, whet' er great or small, were all marshalled along with the same military precision and ceremony. Still, on rare occasions, he had the power to make them move to a lively quick-step, when he indulged in that genial humor, so unexpected and so pleasing.

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F. A. HERRINGTON.

COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH SPEECH AND WRITING

[Continued from page 378 — January issue.]

Do not say "He called *upon* me," but "He called *on* me."

Prefer "*begin* an essay" to "*commence* an essay."

Avoid the use of *balance*, when you mean *remainder*.

Say "I went *over all* the town," instead of "I went *all over* the town."

Prefer "*I fear*" to "*I am afraid* it will not be fine to-morrow."

The phrase "I *never* remember to have seen him," though commonly heard, is objectionable. Say "I *do not* remember *ever* to have seen him."

Do not say "This road *takes* you to Cleveland." Say "This road *leads* (or *leads one*) to Cleveland."

Prefer "Where did you go?" to "Where did you go *to?*"

Instead of "Your's truly" write "Yours truly." *Yours* is the double possessive of *you*.

Prefer "In the writings *of even* great men" to "In the writings *even of* great men."

Use *fewer* in lieu of *less* in the following sentence: "No man ever had *less* friends or more enemies."

Use *life* instead of *death* in the following: "One man was so injured that his *death* was despaired of."

For *were* substitute *was* in the following sentence: "Neither men nor money *were* wanting for the service."

Substitute *would* for *should* in the following sentence: "He hoped that money *should* have been given him."

Avoid the ambiguity seen in the following statement: "A self-made man came to the Klondyke with *only one shirt* to his back, and, since then, he has contrived to accumulate *over fifty thousand*."

Correct the following advertisement: "Two old women *want washing*." Here there is a double ambiguity; both verb and participle are ambiguous. What the old women meant to say was, "they desired to take in washing;" while, as the advertisement reads, it might mean that they require to be washed."

Remember that, in standard modern English, two negatives amount to an affirmative. Therefore, in the following, substitute *any* for *none:* "Do not give him *none* of your mc ıey."

Prefer the expression "I think [or believe] it is not true" to "I do not think it is true."

Use *nearly* for *near* in the sentence: "He is not *near* so rich as Tom."

Do not say, "He *left* it alone," for "He *let* it alone."

Do not use *demean* for *bemean*. To *demean oneself* is to behave oneself; to *bemean oneself* is to lower or disgrace oneself.

Omit *the* in the following sentence: "Which do you *the* more admire: him or her?"

Use the present tense [I have — or take — pleasure, etc.,] in the following sentence: "I *shall have* pleasure in accepting your invitation to dinner."

Do not use a plural verb or pronoun with *each* or *every*. Say: "Each day and each hour [or, everyday and every hour] *brings its* cares."

The phrase *old veterans* is tautological. The word *veterans* implies length of service.

Prepositions These are uninflected words, and besides the prepositions, properly so-called, nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, and adverbs, and even combinations of words, are employed as prepositions. Almost all the real prepositions admit of being used to express every variety of relation between the predicate and its objects, and between a subject and its attributes; but originally they all expressed the relation of place alone. The prepositions, properly so-called, and other words used for prepositions, are such as above, about, across, after, against, along, among, at, before, behind, beside, between, beyond, by, concerning, down, during, from, in, into, of, off, on, over, save, since, through, till, to, towards, up, upon, with, etc. The following are some of the combinations of words used as prepositions: Because of, by means of, on account of, in behalf of, instead of, according to, adjacent to, contrary to, with respect to, etc. Verbs frequently have prepositions as affixes, to modify their signification; and sometimes prepositions are used as adverbial objects in our language, which in other tongues are compounded with the verb; thus, he undertook that business willingly; they have overcome their enemies; what would I not undergo for you? "they went over to the enemy;" "the poet passes it over as hastily as he can;" "to set forth great things by small;" "I shall set out for New York to-morrow."

HOW TO USE PREPOSITIONS.

ABOUT } About and around or round often
AROUND } coincide in meaning.

A chain about his neck, around his neck; look about you, around you.

ABOUT, CONCERNING, RESPECTING, TOUCHING } are in many instances interchangeable. About is of Anglo-Saxon origin, and in more frequent use. The others are from the French.

A question about, concerning, respecting, touching, justice.

ABOVE } Above refers to a higher position.
OVER } Over carrries an idea of extension above an object from one side of it to the other. The opposite of over is under; the opposites of above are below and beneath.

With *over* the idea of contact of the upper with the lower body may or may not exist; with *above* the idea of contact is excluded.

In some instances above and over are interchangeable; as, "The heavens above us are over us."

He was seen of above five hundred brethren at once.— 1 *Cor.* xv.

In a few hours, above thirty thousand men left his standard.— *Macaulay.*

Over in this sense is less common in written discourse, but is allowable. Upwards of, more than, are also in good use.

ACROSS } in some expressions coincide in mean-
OVER } ing. We may say: "To row us over or across the river;" "a bridge across or over the river."

But over is not limited to length merely. "To gallop over a field" differs in meaning from "To gallop across" it.

ACROSS } "He walked through the room,"—
THROUGH } that is, from outside to outside. "He walked across the room,"—that is, from side to side.

AFTER } are sometimes interchangeable, es-
FOR } pecially after words denoting a striving or desire; as, "To thirst after knowledge or for knowledge."

Hence we have: Search after or for; hunt after or for; strive after or for; eager for or after; and thirst after or for, etc.

AGAINST. See FROM. } Amid (the poetic form)
AMID or AMIDST } and amidst denotes
AMONG or AMONGST } position "in the middle of" or "completely surrounded by." They generally imply quantity; while among and amongst always imply number, or a collection of distinct objects with which something is mingled or intermixed.

Amidst snow and rain.

Amid weaknesses; amidst difficulties and disasters; amidst many interruptions.

Among these books were several quartos.

Amid some sylvan scene. — *Longfellow.*

We may say "oranges gleaming amidst leaves,"—the leaves being considered as quantity.

Those squalid cabins and uncleared woods amidst which he was born.—*Macaulay.*

AROUND } are interchangeable; but the shorter
ROUND } form, round, is more frequently used.

The nation....rallied round the sovereign.— *Macaulay.*

AT } Both at and by denote nearness. At is
BY } distinguished from in by not making reference to the interior prominent. It is more specific than by, since it usually implies a customary or particular nearness.

"He stood at the door,"—that is, facing it, as is customary in coming in or going out.

"He stood by the door,"—that is, near it, or at the side of it.

Similarly "sitting at the table" differs from "sitting by the table."

At sometimes approaches by and with in meaning; as, I was astonished at or by the sight; surprised at or by; delighted at, by, or with; offended at or with.

BESIDE } Beside is now used to mean "by the
BESIDES } side of;" also, "apart from" or "out of." Besides means "in addition to," "moreover."

There are other nations in the world ill-matched, besides the English and Irish.— *J. H. Newman.*

BETWEEN } Between etymologically means by
AMONG } twain or two. Among refers to more than two objects.

Hence we should say, The money was divided among several persons, between the two claimants.

BUT } are used in nearly the same sense.
EXCEPT } Except perhaps marks exclusion
SAVE } more pointedly. Excepting is the same as except, but less used. Save is chiefly found in poetry.

BY } By is used with the immediate or essen-
WITH } tial agent; with includes an idea of companionship, and hence precedes an object mediately operative, as an assistant (*e. g.*, an instrument which an agent employs).

Whenever a conscious agent is implied, by must be used; the instrumentality takes with.

The field was dug up by the laborer with his spade. A reed shaken by the wind.

The weapons with which great battles have been won.— *Lewes.*

Overcome by the sun; with his heat.

Struck by a thunderbolt.

Jupiter struck him with a thunderbolt.

By patience and perseverance the work will be completed.

This implies that patience and perseverance were the essential means.

With patience and perseverance, etc.

This is equally correct; but the with points out that the means (patience and perseverance) are useful auxiliaries.

The roads were black with coal dust, the brick houses dingy with smoke.— *George Eliot.*

FOR } For, during, and through, some-
DURING } times are interchangeable.
THROUGH } He stopped there for some time, or during some time.

We loved each other for thirty years.— *Goldsmith.*

A contest protracted through three generations.— *Macaulay.*

FROM } From and against sometimes in-
AGAINST } terchange, as shelter from a storm, or against a storm.

Hence we have: defend from, or defend against; protect from, or protect against; secure from, or secure against, etc.

FROM } From with verbs of movement has
OUT OF } the meaning of away from an object, and is the opposite of to or towards.

Out of with verbs of movement has the meaning of proceeding from the inside of anything, and is the opposite of into and in.

Banished from, or out of, the country.

My uncle leaped from the coach.

My uncle leaped out of the coach.

FROM } Of, in early usage, had the meaning
OF } of from. This meaning is still retained, and hence of is sometimes interchangeable with from.

He arose of the dead.—*Old English.*

North of the Tropic of Cancer.

Thank God, you are rid of a knave.

I'll rid you from the fear of them.— *Shakespeare.*

Hence we have: free of, free from; secure of, secure from; received of, received from; demand of, demand from; clear of, clear from; cleanse of, cleanse from; learn of, learn from, etc.

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[To be Continued.]

SCIENCE OF FAMILIAR THINGS:

SIR NORMAN LOCKYER ON THE TOTAL SOLAR ECLIPSE IN BRITISH INDIA (JAN. 22, 1898), AND ON THE ECLIPSES OF 1793 AND 1896.

By the time the present number of SELF CULTURE reaches the hand of the reader, it will doubtless be known what success has attended the expedition to British India, sent out from England by a joint committee of the Royal and Astronomical Societies, to report upon the total Eclipse of the Sun, which is to take place on the 22nd of January. Apropos of the occasion, Sir Norman Lockyer, professor of astronomical physics at the Royal College of Science, London, and the learned author of many valuable treatises on astronomy, has issued a timely volume dealing with "Recent and Coming Eclipses" (London and New York: Macmillan and Co.). The work chiefly consists of notes on the total solar eclipses of 1893, and 1896, with hints to govern the expedition now on its way to India. An interesting account of the volume recently appeared in the London "Spectator," from which we make the following extracts.

Sir Norman Lockyer, says the reviewer, is not only an eminently practical but a thoroughly practiced astronomer; yet he is happily one of those scientific men who do not regard as mere sentimentality the emotions that are encouraged, if not evoked, by the familiar mystery of Nature. The book which he has published is composed mainly of the actual observations of astronomical phenomena, but the making of these has not expelled from his mind what the late Laureate would have termed his "cosmic pantheism,"—that feeling which perhaps finds most adequate expression in the divine simplicity of "The heavens declare the glory of God." He opens his first chapter which bears the title of "Eclipse Revelations and their Uses," with these words: "There is no question that a total eclipse of our central luminary is one of the grandest and most awe-inspiring sights that it is given to man to witness; feelings of awe, mingled with wonder, are at once appealed to by the attendant phenomena; and it is not surprising that in ancient times, when knowledge was less, and less widely spread than it is now, superstition, fear, and dread put all other emotions in the shade." And so impressed has he been by the awe-inspiring experience of six eclipses, that the utmost he can do—and he could not have done better—is to quote Professor Grant's quite genuine, if slightly old-fashioned, eloquence on the subject of an eclipse written forty years ago:—

"On no other occasion does the display of stupendous power in the economy of the physical universe exercise so subduing an influence over the mind, or produce so humiliating a conviction of the impotence of all human efforts to control the immutable laws of Nature and arrest the course of events, as when the glorious orb of day, while riding in the heavens with unclouded splendor, begins to melt away from an unseen cause, and soon totally disappears, leaving the whole visible world wrapped in the sable gloom of nocturnal darkness. The scene is rendered still more impressive by the circumstances accompanying so remarkable an occurrence. The heavens assume an unnatural aspect which excites a feeling of horror in the spectator; a livid hue is diffused over all terrestrial objects; plants close up their leaves as on the approach of night; the fowls betake themselves to their resting-places; the warbling of the grove is hushed in profound silence; in other words, universal Nature seems to relax her energies, as if the pulse which stimulated her mighty movements had all at once stood still."

Yet, although Sir Norman Lockyer professes to be unable to describe his own feelings better than by quoting Professor Grant's words, he thus himself breaks out when describing the eclipse of 1871:—

"There in the leaden-colored, utterly cloudless sky shone out the eclipsed sun—a worthy sight for gods and men. There, rigid in the heavens, was what struck everybody as a decoration—one that Emperors might fight for, a thousand times more brilliant even than the Star of India, where we then were! A picture of surpassing loveliness, and giving one the idea of serenity among all the activity that was going on below; shining with a sheen as of silver."

As has been hinted, this book is eminently "practical." For one thing, it gives in detail the elaborate preparations made, with, however, but imperfect success, for observing in Norway the great eclipse of August 9, 1896. For another, it explains at great length the achievements in the way of eclipse observation that have been attained by means

of the prismatic camera and the spectroscope. It is four years since the large-scale prismatic camera was introduced:—

"The results obtained by large-scale prismatic cameras showed everybody that these instruments were the most important ones we can employ on an eclipsed sun. They not only give us a complete chemical record on a scale hitherto undreamt of, but they give us the positions and forms of the prominences far better than these have ever been obtained before. Nor is this all; they enable us to study under new conditions some of the conclusions arrived at in previous eclipses, and give us a means of inquiring into the possible origin of some of the phenomena already recorded by slit spectroscopes."

Again, "the results obtained in that year (1893) represent, therefore, only the experimental stage; at the critical moments of the eclipse—that is, at the beginning and end of totality—only snap-shots were taken. In 1896 what is termed a dropping-plate was introduced in the programme of the prismatic camera, a plate being exposed, while gradually falling, from ten seconds before the end of totality to fifteen seconds after, in the hope of catching the so-called 'flash,' which is supposed to represent the 'reversing layer,' which 'flash,' of course, is simply the spectrum of the chromosphere." It may seem to the ordinary and essentially unscientific reader that Sir Norman Lockyer devotes too much of his comparatively limited space to the prismatic camera. But it should be remembered that, unaffected by the defeat of 1896, he is looking forward to a possible success in India on January 22nd of this year. Whether that success, from being a possibility, will become a reality, must depend not a little on the further improvement of the machinery and processes upon which Sir Norman lays stress.

The expedition of 1896 to Norway in H.M.S. 'Volage' to see the eclipse ended, as it is unnecessary to recall, in disappointment; the eclipse was eclipsed by the elements. Yet Sir Norman tells the story of failure very cheerfully; no doubt he does wisely in republishing the letters which he contributed to "Nature" on the subject,—although he must have a Tantalus-like feeling of disappointment when he re-reads these words, written from Kio Island on the very eve of the eclipse:—

"A lovely morning. The sun remained unclouded till long after eclipse time, giving thereby an additional proof of the advantage to us of the short nights. There is no time either for any considerable reduction of temperature or for the accumulation of any great amount of moisture in the air. . . . I am glad to say that the last adjustments have been made, the last demonstrations given; numerous rehearsals have landed us in the perfection of drill; the parties all know their stations and all necessary forms have been written out. We are going then to-day to 'stand easy,' and take some rest in preparation for the fateful to-morrow."

The portion of Sir Norman Lockyer's book in which the failure of the expedition of 1896 is described is, nevertheless, very interesting for the amount of enthusiasm in the scientific venture which seems to have been aroused by it in the breasts of Captain King Hall and the officers and men of the 'Volage.' When the Captain condoled with the leader of the expedition on his failure in attaining his main object, the latter replied that a most important discovery had been made, that, "he had demonstrated that with the minimum of help, and that chiefly in the matter of instruments, such a skilled and enthusiastic ship's company as his could be formed in a week into one of the most tremendous engines of astronomical research that the world has ever seen; so that if the elements had been kind all previous records of work at one station would have been beaten." When Sir Norman asked for volunteers to help him and his scientific associates in their work, as many as seventy of the men of the 'Volage' came forward, and they proved not only so willing, but so capable, that he entrusted to one of the bands into which the seventy were divided the charge of a very delicate instrument. His experiences, indeed, seem to suggest the desirability of our finding new fields for the energies of sailors, as well as of soldiers, in times of peace."

As it is our chief purpose to point out the more popular features in this book, we merely commend to the attention of the specially interested Sir Norman Lockyer's chapters on "The Chemistry of the Sun as Determined in 1893 and 1896," "The Spectrum of the Corona," and "The Structure of the Sun's Atmosphere." The two final chapters deal with "The Approaching Total Eclipse in India" and "The Work to be Done During the Indian Eclipse." It is satisfactory to note that in the meantime all promises well for the eclipse of January 22, 1898. Sir Norman Lockyer, who

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evidently bases quite reasonable hopes on a note drawn up on the climatic and other conditions of Northern and Central India and the Deccan, in which the eclipse will be observed, comes to the conclusion that light northeast winds, fine weather, and smooth seas are to be expected. Mr. Eliot, Meteorological Reporter to the Government of India, says positively: "The weather is throughout the month of January almost uniformly fine, with clear or lightly clouded skies over the whole of the peninsula. Light northeasterly to easterly winds obtain in the Deccan or interior of the peninsula. The West Coast districts are protected by the West Ghats from these winds, and light land and sea breezes prevail."

The Asiatic Society of Bengal has done a good deal in the way of collecting and disseminating information for the guidance of those visiting India on the occasion; "and be it not forgotten," says Sir Norman, almost with the air of a tour-conductor, "that India in the cool season is reached over tranquil seas, and presents one of the finest climates in the world, to say nothing of what Nature provides in the way of tropical scenery, and successive dynasties have left behind them in the way of monuments, which are among the wonders and delights of the world." The Joint Committee of the Royal and Astronomical Societies have since the publication of this book revised certain of the arrangements they originally made, and it is to be hoped that neither pestilence nor "scare" will upset them. Sir Norman Lockyer recalls the success of the observations conducted in 1871 in India, and anticipates greater success in January 1898 because, among other reasons, eye observations have now been almost entirely superseded by permanent photographic records. Sir Norman concludes a most interesting and valuable book with a chapter for scientific experts on "The Work to be Done."

Comment on a Correspondent's Question, and Reply.

Dear Self Culture:—

I have been interested in the "correspondent's question," on page 285 of your December number, concerning the action of a cannon ball dropped from the surface of the earth, the latter being supposed to be permeable. While your answer is correct if the ball were dropped from either pole of the earth, it would hardly be so if it were dropped from any other point. If, for instance, it were dropped from any point upon the equator, it would have an easterly velocity of over 1,000 miles per hour before it started to fall, due to the earth's rotation. At the surface of the earth it would make one revolution per day; but as its linear velocity due to its original motion would be constant, the number of revolutions which it would make per day would be inversely proportional to its distance from the earth's centre, *i.e.*, when it was 2,000 miles from the earth's centre it would make two revolutions per day, and when it was 1,000 miles from the earth's centre it would make four revolutions per day. This does not consider its velocity due to gravity.

The linear velocity of the ball would increase as it neared the centre, due to the action of gravity. The centrifugal force of the ball, tending to throw it away from the centre of its rotation at any instant, would increase as the square of its velocity divided by its distance from the instantaneous centre of its curved path. As the centripetal force of gravity would decrease as the ball neared the earth's centre, it is plain that a point would be eventually reached at which the two forces balance, and the ball would cease to move towards the earth's centre.

Tracing the path of the ball, we find that as it starts to fall the velocity due to gravity will be zero and its easterly velocity will be 1,000 + miles per hour. It will, therefore, for a very small time, travel nearly parallel to the earth's surface (though it would appear to fall straight down, because the earth's surface is also travelling); its velocity due to gravity will gradually increase, while the force due to gravity will decrease, the centrifugal force of the ball itself increasing, until, as explained above, the two latter forces balance each other and the ball ceases to move towards the centre. The velocity due to gravity will now decrease; its original velocity will change its direction in space, though its easterly direction, relative to the earth, will not change, and the ball will be moving away from the earth's centre.

It will reach the surface of the earth nearly opposite its starting-point, the time of its travel being the same as if it had fallen straight through. I say "nearly," because while it was travelling from one point on the surface to the other, the surface of the earth itself would have moved 700 miles to the east, and the ball would therefore be 700 miles west of an opposite point. The ball would then start in a curved path towards a point 1,400 miles west of its original starting-place and would pass on the opposite side of the earth's centre from its first path.

The sum of these rather complex motions is that the ball would describe a set of elliptical spirals, on a plane cut through the earth at the equator, the axis of which would make one revolution every twenty-four hours. If the path were not relative to the earth, but were an absolute path in space, it would be but a single ellipse which would be closed, and the earth would make its ordinary daily revolution, relative to this ellipse, as it is also relative to absolute space.

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With this latter modification, and one due to the fact that gravity varies inversely as the square of the distance between the centres of the two bodies concerned, instead of directly as that distance, as in the case just considered, the phenomenon, barring air resistance, would be exactly the same as is exhibited when a comet, with an original velocity not directly towards the sun, comes into the solar system.

As we have seen, it would approach the sun until the centrifugal force equalled the centripetal force, when it would commence to move away from it, in a path either elliptical or parabolic. It is this same balancing of forces that keeps the earth in its elliptical path, and prevents it from falling into the sun. The law is the one expounded by Newton in proof of his hypothesis of universal gravitation.

I will say, in closing, that I look forward with pleasure to every number of SELF CULTURE, and consider every number a part of my education. By educated people, on all sides, I hear it spoken of in the highest terms. Personally, I simply could not get along without it.

IRVING A. TAYLOR.

BROOKLYN, N. Y., Dec. 18.

The writer of the above letter is right as to what would happen to a cannon ball dropped from the surface of the earth "the latter being supposed to be permeable" — to offer no resistance to the movement of the ball. But this was not the supposition made in the question which SELF CULTURE answered. Clearly a ball could not move in the manner described by Mr. Taylor, were it confined within the limits of a "hole passing through the earth's centre." Actually a ball dropped into a very deep perpendicular hole in the earth would strike the eastern side at no very great depth, would glance to the western side, then to the eastern, and so on, as it descended more and more rapidly, and the consequent friction would be one source of the resistance it would encounter in its fall, another source being the atmosphere. If the hole passed clean through the earth, the result would be as SELF CULTURE stated; the ball — or its fragments — would finally, after repeated oscillations to and fro past the earth's centre, come to rest at that point.

In answering the question an imaginary case was considered, in which there was no resistance, the body being supposed to start from a state of rest and to be acted upon only by gravity, the effect of gravity being, obviously, the matter about which the questioner was in doubt. The answer given that the ball would under these circumstances move essentially as a swinging pendulum, was correct.

Incidentally, mention was made of the effect of striking a swinging pendulum, when at the end of its swing, in a direction perpendicular to the plane of its oscillation, namely, the giving of it an elliptical movement. Let our imaginary cannon ball, instead of dropping from a state of rest, have at the start an eastward movement of five miles a second, and it will go round the earth, instead of through it, moving in a circle. Let its initial velocity toward the east be 1,000 miles an hour — five-eighteenths of a mile a second — and it will move in an ellipse, the longer axis of which will be the earth's diameter, or 8,000 miles; the shorter, one-eighteenth of this distance, or 444 miles, about. This would be the case in Mr. Taylor's problem of a "permeable" earth. As Mr. Taylor has said, the axis of the ellipse would have a fixed direction in space, while the earth would rotate with reference to it. Mr. Taylor is in error upon one point, however. The movement of the ball would not be analogous to that of a comet or of any other celestial body. In celestial mechanics the attracting force varies *inversely* as the square of the distance from its centre varies, and this centre is always found at one focus of the orbit of the moving body. In the case above supposed, the attracting force varies *directly* as the distance of the moving body from the point of attraction, and this point becomes the centre — not one focus — of the ellipse which the body describes.

GEO. SENECA JONES.

The discovery of a large bed of strontium at Put-in-Bay Island, reported from Toledo, has awakened a considerable amount of interest among the manufacturers of fireworks, as it is thought likely that it will result in a considerable reduction in the price of all fireworks in which strontium nitrate or strontium carbonate is used. One large manufacturer of fireworks in New York, who makes use of about one hundred and fifty tons of strontium nitrate in a year and imports the whole of it from Europe, states that it costs his firm now about seven and a quarter cents a pound. If the strontium should be found in large quantities, it would have the effect of lowering the cost of certain classes of fireworks, that is, all those that use a red or crimson light. At present the supply comes chiefly from Germany, and the American manufacturer has to pay a high price for it.

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QUESTION DEPARTMENT

To vary the interest in these series of questions, as well as to increase the educational benefits arising from their daily study in tracing them to the sources of the history, it is designed, for awhile, to group the questions under specific countries, and to withhold reference to the pages in the Britannica, or in the New Supplement thereto, where the answers may be sought. In the present series of questions (for the month of February), it may suffice to say that answers will be found either under the general article on England, in the E. B., or under that of the separate British colonies or specific events referred to in the questions.—ED. S. C.

ENGLAND AND HER COLONIAL HISTORY

Feb. 1. Give a list of the British Colonies and foreign possessions throughout the world, describing the situation of each.

Feb. 2. Indicate the chief trade routes between Great Britain and her colonies, naming the principal ports of these colonies.

Feb. 3. Name ten of the more important fortified naval depots of Britain in foreign waters, and indicate their situations.

Feb. 4. State how England came to acquire her possessions in the Mediterranean and the Levant.

Feb. 5. Name the principal British Islands in the West Indies, and state when and under what circumstances they were acquired.

Feb. 6. Trace the progress of British conquest in India from Clive's day to the close of the eighteenth century.

Feb. 7. Name the causes which led to the British conquest of Canada, and those which led to the separation of the American Colonies.

Feb. 8. What were the grievances of the people of Canada which led to the Rebellion of 1837?

Feb. 9. Name the seven provinces that constitute, with the partially organized territories, the Dominion of Canada, and give their capitals.

Feb. 10. Give the total population of the provinces and native states of British India, and indicate, approximately, the religious persuasion (Hindus, Mohammedans, Buddhists, etc.) of the people of the Indian Empire.

Feb. 11. When did China cede to England her Crown Colony of Hong Kong, and how are its affairs administered by England?

Feb. 12. How and when did Ceylon fall under British rule, and when did England proclaim a protectorate over North Borneo?

Feb. 13. Give the dates of British settlement in the various Australian Colonies, and state which is the oldest colony.

Feb. 14. When did Britain obtain, by native treaty, possession of New Zealand, and when was self-government granted to the colony?

Feb. 15. What commercial advantages has Britain gained from her recent acquisition of Upper Burma?

Feb. 16. England owns or exercises a protectorate in equatorial and Southern Africa over an area of two and a half million square miles. Name the colonies, possessions and territories within this area; state, approximately, its extent of seaboard.

Feb. 17. Of what colonies or possessions of England are the following towns the capitals: Victoria, Fredericton, Brisbane, Hobart, Wellington, Kingston, Georgetown?

Feb. 18. What are the chief provisions of the British North America Act, and when was it enacted?

Feb. 19. Name and give the position of the chief seaports of the British Isles, and locate on a map the following towns: Canterbury, Portland, Sunderland, Roscommon, Dumbarton, Drogheda, Inverness, Brighton.

Feb. 20. What possessions did England gain by the treaty of Vienna? Give the date of the treaty.

Feb. 21. Give the date of the abolition of the slave trade in the British dominions, and name the sum granted the owners as compensation for their slaves.

Feb. 22. When was the government of India transferred to the British Crown?

Feb. 23. When was telegraphic communication between this country and England finally established?

Feb. 24. Give the dates and the assigned causes of the Abyssinian and the Ashantee wars. When did the Maori war in New Zealand close?

Feb. 25. In what year was a Roman Catholic hierarchy re-established in England? Give the date of Catholic Emancipation.

Feb. 26. When was the Oregon boundary dispute settled between this country and England?

Feb. 27. When, and for what territorial compensation, did England cede Heligoland to Germany?

Feb. 28. What did Jay's Treaty accomplish in the adjustment of differences between the United States and England?

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SELF CULTURE

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SOME RECENT TEACHERS OF THE AGE:

CARLYLE, RUSKIN, BROWNING, AND TENNYSON

EVERY great teacher brings a great message. At the sunrise of the intellect there were the ancient geniuses, particularly the Greeks, who uttered ideas that are immortal. As Goethe said: "There are many echoes in the world and but few voices;" so there have been few really great teachers, in the sense of originators of great ideas; yet every nation has had one or more of these whose thought has been its shaping power. Homer brought to the world poetry; Socrates awakened the moral sense of his countrymen; Plato brought idealism.

The great thinkers have taught mankind how to think, the poets have pointed out the beauty of the universe. It might seem, at first sight, as if all people having eyes, ears, and brains might discern truth and beauty for themselves. But as a fact it is only the occasional person who discovers these. Men lived a long while before even the law of gravitation was made known.

Of great thinkers England has had its full share, and their influence has been incalculable. Of the men of England, who in our age have conveyed important messages to their fellow-men, Carlyle, Ruskin, Browning, and Tennyson are the chief. These are men who have spoken out of the fulness of great minds and souls, and have most deeply influenced our time.

The first of these, the Titan of modern literature, Thomas Carlyle, came forth from a peasant home in Scotland to astonish and instruct the world. He came at a period when the thought of England was profoundly moved by the disturbed state of European politics. It was a time of storm and stress. Byron, with his literature of despair, was the popular mouthpiece. The influences of the French Revolution were still at work, and the echoes of the cannon of Bonaparte were yet reverberating. The melancholy Hamlet seemed to have forecast the type of many men in the early part of the nineteenth century. To many of them "the earth was but a sterile promontory, and the brave o'erhanging firmament but a foul and pestilent congregation of vapours," and "man delighted them not, nor woman either." We speak now of the thinkers, for the people are always the same, and we are to remember that philosophers are often fools.

The wondrous beauty of Byron, the prestige of his rank, the sonorousness and power of his verse, had won an immense influence for his doctrine of despair. The fact that the miraculous Bonaparte, springing from savage Corsica, had been able to make a plaything of the world, "his stakes being thrones and his dice human bones," made men's hearts sink within them, as if nothing were stable and all things were threatened with dissolution.

Over in Germany, one great man who was accustomed to take his carriage a hundred miles roundabout in order to avoid a battle-field, who shut his eyes to the pains of life, was drinking inspiration from the poets and thinkers of the dead but ever-living world of Greece, and from the fountains of nature herself;

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Goethe was building up out of the ruins of Europe a new world of thought.

Amid such conditions Thomas Carlyle entered upon his career. Many men of less power assumed a negative attitude, wiped the slate of their minds clean and betook themselves to silence. For Carlyle such a state of mind was impossible; he could not chew thistle-down for nourishment; he was a positive character from head to feet; the "Everlasting Yea" was necessary for him, and the denying spirit was commanded to get behind him as a Sàtan. He was impatient of the sorrows of Byron shrieked in everybody's ears, and of the sorrows of Bonaparte roared out by cannon, and he cried: "Close your Byron and open your Goethe."

Other men, like Wordsworth, had attained a positive condition of mind, but they could not command universal attention. Where was the man whose voice was strong enough, and whose attitude was striking enough, to win a hearing from the world while he asserted the new truth? If Lord Byron was to have a literary successor, where was he to be found? And of what sort was he to be? If the doctrine of despair was to be speared like a dragon, where was the champion who could set his foot on its neck? Strange things happen in this divinely-made world; not from the ranks of princes and nobles was the hero to come. The Lord Byron who always kept his escutcheon hanging near his bed, and who "aspired," as his biographer, John Nichol, tells us, "to the double distinction of being a poet among peers and a peer among poets," who returned a letter that was directed simply to "Mr. Byron," who compelled his intimate friends to address him as "My Lord," was to have his successor in literary influence in a man born in the cottage of a Scotch peasant. The Englishman was to be succeeded by a Scotchman; the peer by a peasant; the handsomest man of his day by an ungainly, harsh-faced man; the dandy who was a rival of Brummell by a man whose clothes were for use rather than ornament; the lover of ladies by a contemner of the sex; the immoralist by a puritan; the member of the House of Lords by one who was partly trained for the Presbyterian ministry; a student of Cambridge by a graduate of Edinburgh; the poet, whose verses roll like the waves of the sea, by a prose writer, whose style of music is of the nature of a damaged calliope. Byron's style was often a bridge over which he brought more Latin and Greek allusions than were in good taste; but Carlyle's style was like the North Sea, in which drifted weeds, rubbish, and a thousand other things from Germany.

With everything against him of a social and personal kind, except his wonderful brain and mighty heart, Carlyle bravely attacked the Byronian dragon of despair; and it was he who, with dark eyes flashing under his shaggy brows, and with his black lank hair blown by the winds, with his mighty peasant's arm, let out its life-blood.

As the years went by, it became more and more evident that Carlyle was of the race of the Titans. The Byron who had once seemed to dwarf all writers ancient and modern, whose vogue had been universal, and whose worship even in the home of Goethe had been more ardent than that of the great master himself, and who had been seriously proclaimed a greater poet than Homer, began to grow less and less in size and importance, and the figure of Carlyle became gigantic. The force of his writings surpassed that of any other English author, the immensity of his vocabulary exceeded that of Shakespeare himself; his power to paint in words caused Lowell to say that if he had had the gift of verse the author of "The French Revolution" could have produced an epic superior to those of Homer; the power of his utterance in speech was proclaimed by Froude to surpass that of any man with whom he had ever conversed; his range of knowledge was almost boundless; his personality was of incomparable strength, his pride was regal, his depth of thought was marvellous.

Carlyle illuminated every subject he touched, and he soon became recognized as the greatest thinker in Great Britain; his influence was so vast that there was scarcely a man who did not feel it. Within the church, and without it, the minds of men were shaken as by the blowing of a mighty wind. Carlyle felt most of all the influence of German thought; his chief admiration was for the great Germans. He found in everything in nature a symbol. He admits

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that, for a considerable time, his questionings of the infinite brought him back no answer; but after a while the messages began to come. As he found symbolism in nature, so he found in heroic men and women the chief manifestation of the Divine Power. It is difficult, if not impossible, to define Carlyle's exact position; he was a mystic, a pantheist, and a hero-worshipper, but he was vastly more; he was deeply religious, though certainly not orthodox. One evening when he was conversing, or rather monologizing, with several friends in his study, he arose to fix the fire, and with the poker in his hand, he said, with all of his tremendous force, "There is but one thing more horrible than a man without religion, and that is a woman without religion." When he lay dying, he uttered, impressively and with a sense of awful mystery, with his eyes fixed on the infinite, as if he were about to take a voyage on a wide sea, "I am going, going, going."

His favorite quotations were from Goethe and Shakespeare. The one was the song of the Earth Spirit, from "Faust:"

"In Being's floods, in Action's storm,
I walk and work, above, beneath,
Work and weave in endless motion!
Birth and Death,
An infinite ocean;
A seizing and giving,
The fire of the Living:
'Tis thus at the roaring Loom of Time I ply
And weave for God the Garment thou seest Him by."

The other was, "We are such stuff as dreams are made of, and our little life is rounded with a sleep." In Cheyne Row, Chelsea, in the British metropolis, stands the house in which he lived for many years, and where he died. That place has many historic associations, but for most of us it simply means Carlyle. At the end of the street, on the bank of the Thames, there is now a statue of him, at a point that was his favorite spot; the statue represents him in a posture of reflection, with his deep eyes contemplating the river as if it were the stream of Time. Within his house was that remarkable upper room whose walls were so padded as to be inaccessible to any external sound; there the great thinker, who suffered at times absolute torture from the rattle of carriages, the crowing of chickens and the barking of dogs, was able to enjoy respite from jarring sounds. On the roof of his house he often sat and smoked, and contemplated the "Infinities" and "Eternities" of which he talked so much. In the presence of the mysteries of life he commended reverent silence, and, with his usual magnificent inconsistency, he illustrated it by a shelfful of his own books.

No man was ever less suited to live in the same house with a woman than he. Jane Welsh, his wife, said: "I married Carlyle for ambition; he has far surpassed my wildest expectations, but I am miserable." When she wrote letters to her friends, she sometimes dated them from "Hell." One could hardly fancy a worse perdition for a sensitive, well-bred woman than to live with the irascible dyspeptic, Thomas Carlyle, who had been reared in a peasant's home apart from the softening influences of accomplished young women, a man who at times was magnificent in his outbursts of tenderness, but whose disturbed nerves were easily irritated by all manner of trifles, and whose self-control was so feeble that it could not keep him from pouring out upon everybody the red-hot lava of his anger, with every variation of phrase and qualifying word of which this master of speech was capable. Mrs. Carlyle had had the strange destiny of being sought in marriage by that other marvellous man, Edward Irving; a man much more lovable than Carlyle, and so deeply attached to the woman who rejected him that it is probable that if she had married him he would have kept within the orbit of sanity. The woman, late in her life, in commenting upon her choice, said, justly: "Had I married Irving there would have been no tongues," referring to his vagary in regard to Pentecostal tongues. It is probable that the taking by Carlyle of a woman whom he did not long want from Irving, who always wanted her, destroyed the career of one of the most marvellous orators of modern times, and turned his church into a bedlam, and ended his brilliant life in darkness. Truly the Terrors as well as the Splendors accompanied Carlyle. When the wife sank dead of heart disease in her carriage in St. James' Park, and the earth had covered her face out of sight, the old man, with his gray hair blowing in the wind, stood uncovered

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many times by the grave, muttering: "The light of my life has gone out."

The influence of Carlyle was all on the side of truth and right, even when what he said was mixed with error. The whole drift of his teaching is away from despair and toward optimism. "Infinite love, yet infinite rigor of law; so is nature made," he said.

Of all men who have ever lived, no one has taught mankind so much about the beauty of nature and of art as John Ruskin. It is possible that some poets and painters and sculptors have felt as much of the beautiful, but no one else has deliberately set about instructing mankind so comprehensively in this department. To speak reverently, if an angel from heaven were to visit earth and stay the length of a human life, one can imagine that after explaining the love of God in Christ he could find nothing better to do than to lead men and women through the various scenes of this world, and to point out to them the beauties of earth and heaven, and the meaning of beautiful things. And this is what Ruskin has done. To the duller eyed he has pointed out the beauty in all things, from the tiny stone or flower to the glory of the heavens. One might truly say that the beautiful had never really been seen adequately until the eyes of Ruskin were turned upon it.

Much fun has been made of the ordinary guide, or cicerone, who marches you past miles of pictures and through acres of palaces, and glibly gives a cut-and-dried résumé of facts in regard to them; and if Ruskin had been a mere didactic guide, one could feel but little admiration for him. But if the gallery you are visiting is the Universe, and your guide is a miracle-worker who can open your eyes that have heretofore had scales upon them, and if he is a great and marvellous intelligence vastly superior to all his disciples, and if he has all the eloquence of all poets and orators combined in his own speech, this tour of inspection will take on a higher character than the rushing around of a travelling party. One can hardly be accused of hyperbole when one declares that Ruskin is such a guide. He has taken millions of us into the presence of the beautiful; and he has discoursed upon it with an eloquence scarcely equalled by any man, ancient or modern. Pope, the old-time favorite poet, wrote that "God said, let Newton be and all was light;" we may paraphrase this: "God said, let John Ruskin be and all was beautiful."

It has been the glory of Ruskin to discover the soul in things beautiful, to enable men not only to see but to feel; he has successfully destroyed the force of the Byronic idea of the unreality of the beautiful. Byron had declared: "Of its own beauty is the mind diseased, and fevers into false creation; where — where are the forms the sculptor's soul hath seized? In him alone." Ruskin has shown the reality of beauty.

Men had not only been blind largely to the beauties of nature, but they had forgotten to a great extent the real beauties of art. And it was Ruskin who led us to see the glory of old cathedrals, who induced us to climb their walls and study minutely their sculpturings, who made us pause among the stones of Venice, who found in nooks and crannies of forgotten places delights and inspiration for the soul.

He has taught us that beauty is not a mere development, an accident, or a disease, but an eternal thing, one of the chief factors of the universe, one of the colors of the prism that make the white light of God's being.

Ruskin, like Carlyle, had no patience with materialistic science, with "the gospel of dirt." He declared and believed that "Darwin has a mortal fascination for all vainly curious, idly speculative persons, and has collected in the train of him every impudent imbecility in Europe, like a dim comet wagging its useless tail of phosphorescent nothing across the steadfast stars." Ruskin and Carlyle consider the living spirit of man and its manifestations a greater study than the bones of dead animals and the superstitions of degenerate savages. Ruskin said that a man should not think of the germ that he was, or of the skeleton that he is to be, but of the man that he is. He declared at one time, in his indignation against materialistic science and socialistic disturbances, that he and Carlyle alone in all England were for God and the Queen.

This man inherited riches which he has given away; he has been one of the most lavish distributors of money in our time; he has been one of the few men

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who have given away not only interest but capital, not only part of his capital but all of it. Had it not been for the large revenue from his books, often amounting to $50,000 a year, he would long ago have been in want and would have been laughed at as a fool soon parted from his money. But when a man has an earning capacity of $50,000 a year, and that when he stubbornly keeps the editions of his books in Great Britain at large prices, he can afford to give away $1,000,000, and no one dare laugh at him, especially when it is John Ruskin who does it. Like Carlyle, he is a man of immense pride and extraordinary independence of character. He has gathered about him in his home the rarest art treasures, and feeds his soul always on the beautiful; he has on his table a large block of chalcedony, carved with the one word "To-day."

The name of Ruskin is associated in the minds of many people chiefly with the book called "Modern Painters," and with his defence of the paintings of Turner. His fight and victory for that great painter make one of the most remarkable chapters in the history of art. He compelled the whole world to see through his eyes, and proved in the face of all critics that Turner's art was supreme. But Ruskin is the author of a shelfful of books beside, of lectures on political economy, and of some extraordinary popular lectures.

Ruskin, like most so-called men of genius, is in many respects an eccentric. A great many little people, who do queer things only because they have no brains, often fancy that they show traits of genius; if they had the genius we could forgive them because of the debt we owe those who produce great and noble things for the world. It is unfortunately true that the real geniuses often do foolish things; Ruskin himself has said, that he is convinced that many of the reformers of the world have been slain or rejected because of their unusual costumes and offensive manners. Ruskin has been neither rejected nor slain, but he has nullified much of his influence by eccentric actions and opinions. A great mill, when the belts are on the wheels, will go on grinding whether there is any wheat running or not, and even when inferior grain or chaff is thrown in. Ruskin's big intellectual mill has ground away sometimes when there was very little grain at hand, and when an inferior article has been used. No man's work is always good, not even Shakespeare's; Byron remarked that "Horace had said that Homer sometimes nods; we know without him that Wordsworth sometimes wakes." Ruskin's work is always up to a certain intellectual and artistic level; but his opinions on art are much more valuable than his opinions on political economy or most other matters.

But to understand Ruskin, the man, we must glance at one of the secrets of his life. "Woman was the final cause of war," according to the ancient saying; and a woman's influence, whether it be that of mother, wife, sister, sweetheart, or lost love, has had much to do with the destiny of most men who have accomplished much in the world. They have pulled down and set up; they have steeled men's nerves, or drawn their life-blood, from Helen of Troy down to the present; this is true in the life of saint, warrior, and artist; a woman's face appears in the life of St. Francis; and it was a woman who unwittingly made John Ruskin the greatest art student the world has ever seen, and who poured into the chalice of his life the only bitter drops that he has had to drink. Truly woman seldom understands her wondrous power, and without a thought wrecks an empire or shatters the royal temple of a great brain, or embitters a mighty heart, being, as Amiel says, "the delight and terror of man, a mystery to all because a mystery to herself." John Ruskin chose from among women one who was beautiful and brilliant, and because he loved her and believed that she loved him, and she believed that also, he made her his wife.

His most intimate friend in those early days was the late Sir John Millais, a rising young painter. Ruskin desired him to paint the portrait of his wife; the companionship of the woman and the painter resulted in a mutual attachment that excluded Ruskin, the husband. That Millais was of a more earthly make, more human than that archangel of the mind, John Ruskin, and the woman was unable to live at the intellectual and spiritual altitude of her husband, may be conjectured. The painter and the woman resolved to act as honorably as could be under the circumstances,

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determining possibly that it was better that one life should be saddened rather than that three should be destroyed, since Ruskin would not in any case have lived with a woman whose heart did not belong to him, went into the presence of Ruskin one day; they went hand in hand into his library, and kneeling before him acknowledged their love, and asked of him that he should give the woman to his friend. Being Ruskin, though stricken to the heart, he spoke gently to them, gave his forgiveness and blessing, soon after consented to a divorce, and stood with them at the altar at their marriage. The loss of a woman gave Ruskin art. He bore a brave face to the world, and has seldom alluded to the circumstance. A short time ago he said: "The world will never know what love of mine it lost, because that poor sick child would not have the love that belonged to her." So the Swiftesque vein in Ruskin is explained.

CALVIN DILL WILSON.

[*To be concluded in April.*]

IRVING'S NEW HISTORICAL PLAY:

PETER THE GREAT*

AMONG students of history, as well as among play-goers, much interest has been manifested by the recent production in London of a new historical drama, written by a son of Sir Henry Irving, on the theme of Peter the Great. Of this autocratic personage, though his half-barbarian figure looms largely on the dusky canvas of early modern European history, it cannot be said that much is known, save by those who have made diligent use of their Encyclopædias, or have ventured to read the cumbrous detailed "Life" of the Muscovite monarch, by Mr. Eugene Schuyler. Tsar Peter is not one of the romantic figures of history, and, if he has won attention at all by the reader, it has been due more to the tradition of his many savage and despotic acts than to the fact that history knows him as the founder of St. Petersburg and the creator of the modern Russian Empire. Up to the time of his coming to the throne, in 1682, his education, we know, was of the most limited kind, and when he grew to manhood he developed the semi-barbarous and semi-Asiatic qualities that still mark the mass of the Russian people.

What the Emperor Peter (he was the first Muscovite ruler, by the way, to assume the title), achieved for Russia, he no doubt primarily owed to the Scoto-Swiss Lefort, an able Court favorite, who is credited with initiating him into the sciences and the arts of civilization, and who aided him in his projects of reform, remodelled the army, and laid the foundations of a Russian navy. To the restraining influences of this counsellor, Peter, it is said, was probably saved from becoming "the mere savage despot which his brutal and passionate disposition and indomitable energy inclined him to be." Yet the Emperor was a man of no little genius and undoubtedly did much to raise the nation he ruled and "knouted" to an appreciation of its greatness.

For the purposes of stage representation, Tsar Peter, in Mr. Laurence Irving's hands, retains a good deal of the remorseless tyrant mood with which history credits him. He softens little of his savagery, yet dwells mostly on that side of his character which led him, in his love for Russia, to long for heroic qualities in his son, which should fit him for rule, and so carry out his great schemes for the aggrandizement of the Empire. In this, as we know, he was bitterly disappointed. Alexis's nature was weak and emotional, and he hated the barbarity of his father's passionate ways. Moreover, he shrank from the national work which the Emperor desired to lay upon him, and for the performance of which he was wholly unfitted. It was disappointment at the failure of this chosen instrument that evidently suggested the idea in Peter's untutored mind of getting rid of Alexis, though his rebellion against fate prevented his foreseeing who else there was to succeed him on

*See the biographical sketch, Peter I. of Russia, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XVIII., page 698.

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the throne and give effect to his designs. Seeing his son's unfitness he puts before him two options, either that he should go into a monastery, or that he should renounce his right of succession to the throne. Alexis accepts the former, but having fallen into the toils of a worthless woman (Euphrosyne), he runs away with her and conceals himself first at Vienna and afterwards at Naples. Here he dallies with treason, and by Euphrosyne's instrumentality, since it is she who intrigues against her lover, Alexis falls into his father's hands and after a lengthy trial is condemned to death, the Emperor signing the death-warrant.

Strong as is the mad Emperor's determination to rid the Empire of his feeble-minded son, Tsar Peter strangely evinces compassion for his fate, and after sentence is passed upon him, he has a long and highly-wrought interview with him, which enables the dramatist to reveal the struggle in the Tsar's mind between an uncrushed-out love for the son and fear lest, if he lived, he would destroy his own work for the Empire.

In the colloquy that ensues, Alexis tells his father some wholesome truths and surprises him by the strenuous and bitter manner in which he denounces his pitiless rule. The Tsar excuses himself, however, on the plea that what he has done is for the sake of the Empire, and the scene closes, with the entrance of a soldier bearing the poisoned draught. The curtain falls upon a tragic scene, the elements that compose it including the shrieks of Alexis and the prostration of the Tsar, due partly to grief over the fate of his heir, and partly to sorrow at the news that is brought him, of the supposed death of the son born to him by Queen Catherine.

The part in the play of the vain-glorious Queen is taken by Miss Ellen Terry, but the dramatist gives her only a subordinate rôle. The burden of the piece rests upon Sir Henry Irving as Tsar, that strangely composite character who, as Voltaire tells us, changed the face of the greatest empire in the universe, and who, reformer as he was, was deficient in that first of all virtues — the virtue of humanity. The historian adds, that he civilized his subjects, yet remained himself a barbarian. "Brutality in his pleasures, ferocity in his manners, and cruelty in his punishments, sullied the lustre of many virtues. He would sometimes, with his own hand, we are told, execute sentences of death upon the unhappy criminals, and in the midst of a revel would show his dexterity by cutting off heads."

The play, we gather, gives new scope for Sir Henry Irving's versatile powers, while the plot and working out of the drama are highly creditable to his son's gifts as a dramatist. In many passages the play shows unusual strength, though here and there it is said to betray the shortcomings due to immature powers in the author. The subject being mainly historical, and dealing with a country at the time freshly emerging from barbarism, will be sure to attract, especially should the drama be played on this side the Atlantic with the splendid cast and stage setting which is now giving it its vogue at the London Lyceum. From a British contemporary we extract the following estimate of the play, which appears to be a sound judgment.

Summing up the drama in a sentence, we may say that, despite the defects to which we shall allude, and also the needless length of many or most of the scenes, the play is a sincere piece of dramatic work, written with astonishing power, and containing many scenes of admirable quality, and that it shows signs of splendid promise. The part of Peter is one that greatly taxes even the resources of Sir Henry Irving. In the lighter scenes, where Peter is shown merely as a jovial brute, he fell into some of his worst mannerisms, and at times it was difficult to follow him; nor do his outbursts of passion show him at his best. In his scenes, however, with Alexis all the actor's art appeared at its full value, and although his inarticulate cry at signing the death-warrant unfortunately sounded rather comic, Sir Henry has done little in his career more noble and impressive.

An exceedingly able performance in the difficult part of Alexis was given by Mr. Taber, a clever American actor new to England. His task was immensely difficult, and he accomplished it brilliantly. The part of Catherine, entrusted to Miss Ellen Terry, was short and not difficult. She achieved it easily, and with great success. Mr. Mackintosh gave a striking performance as a cruel, cunning servant of the Tsar. The rest of the company did excellent work, though perhaps of no remarkable quality. The mise-en-scène presented several very striking Russian interiors, from which a most picturesque effect was obtained by means of the splendid barbaric costumes of the old Russians; whilst one of the most notable scenic effects in the history of the Lyceum is that of the Naples landscape. The reception was enthusiastic, and at the fall of the curtain Sir Henry made a speech of thanks, with some touching references to his pleasure at the warm welcome to his son's drama.

G.M.A.

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TENNYSON'S "CROSSING THE BAR"

ROSSING the Bar" was published at the end of the volume entitled "Demeter and Other Poems" in 1889; and we learn from the biography of Tennyson, written by his son Hallam, the present Lord Tennyson, that it was written on a day in October, when they came from Aldworth to Faringford, their residence in the Isle of Wight. "Before reaching Faringford," says his son, "he had the Moaning of the Bar in his mind, and after dinner he showed this poem written out. I said, 'that is the crown of your life's work.' He answered, 'It came in a moment.'"

Although his son was right in regarding this exquisite and perfect poem as the crown of his work, a wonderful production from a man of eighty, for Tennyson had completed his eightieth year on the previous 6th of August, it was not his last contribution to English poetic literature. In 1892, the last year of his life, the charming play of "The Foresters" appeared on the stage of New York, and in a volume; and it was followed by the "Death of Œnone, Akbar's Dream, and other Poems," the proof sheets of which arrived when he was on his deathbed. The latter volume contained a poem, "The Silent Voices," pointing also to the "dumb hour clothed in black;" but it is the earlier poem, "Crossing the Bar," which will always be associated with the death of the poet. It has been placed at the end of the collected edition of the poems, and with evident propriety, although we did not know, until the publication of the Memoir, that he had said to his son a few days before his death, "Mind you put 'Crossing the Bar' at the end of all editions of my poems."

The subject of this poem — the passage of man from time to eternity — had often and long occupied the mind of the poet. The great poem of "In Memoriam" is pervaded by the thought, at first giving rise to doubts and questionings, but ending in the assurance of faith and hope. It is in this spirit that he offers the prayer at the end of the poem, that the "Living Will" that shall endure may so purify us that we may come to trust,

> "With faith that comes of self-control,
> The truths that never can be proved."

In the same spirit he declares in the dedication to the poem,

> "We have but faith: we cannot know;
> For knowledge is of things we see;
> And yet we trust it comes from thee,
> A beam in darkness: let it grow.

And it is on the ground of this faith that he declares: —

> "Thou will not leave us in the dust:
> Thou madest man, he knows not why;
> He thinks he was not made to die;
> And thou hast made him: thou art just."

So much for Tennyson's utterances on this great and mysterious subject in his poems. We have no great sympathy with the spirit which is forever prying into the secret thoughts of writers, and trying to find out what they have not cared to explain in their published utterances. We believe, however, that a short extract from the private journal of Queen Victoria, sent by the Queen to Hallam Tennyson, after his father's death, and published in the Memoir, will be acceptable to many. Under date of Tuesday, August 7th, 1883, the Queen had written:

"After luncheon, saw the great poet Tennyson in dearest Albert's room for nearly an hour; and most interesting it was. . . . He talked of the many friends he had lost, and what it would be if he did not feel and know that there was another world, where there would be no partings; and then he spoke with horror of the unbelievers and philosophers, who would make you believe there was no other world, no immortality, who tried to explain all away in a miserable manner. We agreed that, were such a thing possible, God, who is Love, would be far more cruel than any human being. . . . I told him what a comfort 'In Memoriam' had again been to me, which pleased him."

In more ways than one, therefore, we are made to understand something of the attitude of Tennyson towards the subject of another life; but neither he nor any one else had struck the note which vibrated in "Crossing the Bar." The poem was received by the critics, and by the public at large, with delight and astonishment. Nevertheless, as it so often happens, as it almost always happened with Tennyson (even the glorious "Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington" was scoffed at), there arose voices

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carping at some lines or phrases in this perfect poem, showing, for the most part, a mere want of understanding of the allusions, or of insight into the significance of the imagery. For this reason it may not be entirely superfluous to offer a few remarks which may help to bring the meaning out a little more clearly, with the hope that something better may still be done in the future. Let us, however, first have the poem before us.

CROSSING THE BAR.*

Sunset and Evening Star,
And one clear call for me.
And may there be no moaning of the bar
When I put out to sea;

But such a tide as moving seems asleep,
Too full for sound and foam,
When that which drew from out the boundless deep
Turns again home.

Twilight and evening bell,
And after that the dark;
And may there be no sadness of farewell
When I embark!

For tho' from out our bourne of Time and Place
The flood may bear me far,
I hope to see my Pilot face to face,
When I have crost the bar.

The title of the poem at once demands attention. "What is the bar?" Without stopping to ask how many such objects may be found, there is at least one known to the present writer, the harbor bar at the mouth of the River Taw, which enters the Bristol channel or Severn sea not far from Bideford. It is probably here that we may find Tennyson's bar; and it was certainly this to which Kingsley referred in his "Three Fishers"—"the harbour bar is moaning."

The bar is a ridge of sand, gravel, pebbles, and mud, which runs across the river and stops navigation except when the tide is high. At low water the tide, washing backwards or forwards, strikes against this obstruction, producing a dull, resonant sound, which may properly be described as moaning. The poet compares the passage from time to eternity to the outflow of the river into the ocean, or to the sailing on the river out into the boundless deep. When the tide is high the bar is buried deep beneath the water, and no sound comes from it; there is "no moaning of the bar"—

"But such a tide as moving seems asleep,
Too full for sound and foam;"

and the poet prays that his passage from the temporal to the eternal may, in like manner, be peaceful and untroubled.

A similar thought is expressed, with a different reference, in the nineteenth and twentieth cantos of "In Memoriam," where the poet compares the deeper griefs which can find no utterance to the almost total silence of the Wye passing into the Severn; and the lesser griefs to the "babbling" of the river entering the estuary at low water.

"The Wye is hushed, nor moved along,
And hushed my deepest grief of all,
When filled with tears that cannot fall,
I brim with sorrow, drowning song."

So it is when the Severn is filled by the rising tide and the salt water

"Hushes half the babbling Wye,
And makes a silence in the hills."

But again

"The tide flows down, the wave again
Is vocal in its wooded walls;
My deeper anguish also falls,
And I can speak a little then."

The reference, of course, is different, although the imagery is substantially the same. In the poem before us, he asks that his voyage to the unseen world may be as quiet as the passage of a vessel over the bar when the tide is high. This is all quite clear, and there cannot be much difficulty in explaining the rest of the poem in the light of these considerations.

A difficulty, however, has been raised in regard to one phrase in the last two lines:—

"I hope to see my Pilot face to face,
When I have crost the bar."

And here perhaps the writer may venture first to give the explanation which occurred to him before reading the memoir of the author. There could be little doubt, he thought, as to who the Pilot is; and we cannot but wonder at some of the explanations which have been suggested. It may be sufficient merely to refer to a single specimen of these. One ingenious person thought the Pilot was the poet's dead son, Lionel, to whose burial in the Dead Sea so touching a reference is made in the dedication of the

*We use here the pointing of the poet's MS., not that of the pointed volume. The printing of much of Tennyson's published work is very defective.

Demeter volume to Lord Dufferin; but why this dear youth should be regarded by his father as his pilot it is impossible to understand.

The present writer speedily concluded that the Pilot was that "Strong Son of God, immortal Love," to whom the author dedicated "In Memoriam," that great light of whom our little systems "are but broken lights," that "highest, holiest manhood," which is "both human and divine." The explanation given in the Memoir does not necessarily differ from this. "He explained the Pilot," says his son, "as that Divine and Unseen, who is always guiding us."

A still stranger mistake has been made in a criticism of the reference to the Pilot as being met after crossing the Bar. To this representation it has been strangely objected that it is inaccurate to speak of meeting his Pilot after passing away from earth and putting out into the ocean. It is not on the ocean, say the objectors, but when we are coming into port, or going out, that we need the pilot. Very well; but here is a thorough misunderstanding of the poet's meaning; let us see whether we cannot make it clear.

Whither is the poet bound? He is bound *for home*. The ocean is his home. It is at once the vast Infinite and the "Harbour where he would be." There is no contradiction, for the ocean is God—"The ocean of His love;" and He is also the Refuge of the soul when the tempest is high. From the Eternal he had come. His soul is "that which drew from out the boundless deep." And now it goes back to the eternity from which it came: "it turns again home." And to this home in the bosom of the Father the soul is guided by its divine Pilot. Well, therefore, may he say:—

> "I hope to see my Pilot face to face,
> When I have crost the bar."

So far, it is hoped, all is clear. One other point may be noted as being of some interest. If we compare the first and third stanzas, we shall see something of progression in the thought. In the first he writes:—

> "Sunset and Evening Star,
> And one clear call for me."

In the third the night is creeping further on, the sun has set, and then come

> "Twilight and evening bell
> And after that the dark.'

So also there is a correspondence in the thoughts connected with these moments. In the first place the prayer is:—

> "May there be no moaning of the bar
> When I put out to see."

In the third stanza there is a sense of being nearer to separation from the things of time and the dear ones here:—

> "May there be no sadness of farewell
> When I embark!"

We cannot profess to have come near exhausting the meaning of this transcendent poem. Every word in this beautiful utterance of that great soul deserves to be meditated. We must be content to have helped to elucidate some of its parts; and we may be permitted for a moment to point out that the poet's prayer was answered in full. When Tennyson died, many particulars of his passing away were permitted to be made public; and these have been supplemented by the Memoir.

As the end drew near, the mind of the poet seemed to turn, more and more, to the future and the eternal. "I believe," he said, "that God reveals Himself in every individual soul; and my idea of heaven is the perpetual ministry of one soul to another." Tennyson's sympathy with a certain side of Pantheism is well known, and comes out in his remarks on Bruno and Spinoza. Speaking of matter and mind, he says, "Matter is a greater mystery than mind. Spirit seems to me to be the reality of the world."

Several times, during his last few days, he called for his Shakespeare, and they brought him the volume or volumes containing Lear, Cymbeline, and Troilus and Cressida. Among the passages, the dirge in Cymbeline (Act IV., Sc. 2) was read to him at his request:—

> "Fear no more the heat o' the sun,
> Nor the furious winter's rages;
> Thou thy worldly task hast done,
> Home art gone, and ta'en thy wages;
> Golden lads and girls all must,
> As chimney-sweepers, come to dust.
>
> Fear no more the frown o' the great;
> Thou art past the tyrant's stroke;
> Care no more to clothe and eat;
> To thee the reed is as the oak:
> The sceptre, learning, physic, must
> All follow this, and come to dust.
>
> Fear no more the lightning-flash,
> Nor the all-dreaded thunder-stone;
> Fear not slander, censure rash;
> Thou hast finished joy and moan:

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All lovers young, all lovers must
Consign to thee, and come to dust.

No exorciser harm thee!
Nor no witchcraft charm thee!
Ghost unlaid forbear thee!
Nothing ill come near thee!
Quiet consummation have;
And renownèd be thy grave!"

The prayer of the poet was answered. "Sadness of farewell," in such cases, there must ever be. But if sadness, then also true gladness and thankfulness, first from her who has now gone to join him, and then from all who loved and honored him; and they are a great number not easy to reckon. He fell asleep, his hand resting on the page of him who is the master of all the poets, the glory of English literature and of human genius, on the volume of Shakespeare, of Cymbeline, on the dirge in that play which he had asked to have read to him. The volume lies with him in his grave in Westminster Abbey.*

The last words spoken by the poet were words of blessing to his wife and his son. "For the next hours," says the latter, "the full moon flooded the room and the great landscape outside with light; and we watched in solemn stillness." "Nothing," says his physician, Dr. Dabbs, "could have been more striking than the scene during the last few hours. On the bed a figure of breathing marble, flooded and bathed in the light of the full moon streaming through the oriel window; his hand clasping the Shakespeare which he had asked for but recently, and which he had kept by him to the end. The moonlight, the majestic figure as he lay there, 'drawing thicker breath,' irresistibly brought to our minds his own 'Passing of Arthur.'"

On the day of the funeral, Westminster Abbey "was crowded from end to end by a vast multitude of mourners. The nave was lined by men of the Balaclava Light Brigade, by some of the London Rifle Volunteers, and by the boys of the Gordon Boys' Home, in token of their gratitude for what he had done for each and all of them. . . . Nothing could have been more simple and majestic than the funeral service"—two anthems being sung, the words of both being his own: "Crossing the Bar" and "Silent Voices." The tributes of sympathy came from many countries and from all creeds and classes. The grave of the poet is next to that of Browning and in front of the monument to Chaucer, in the Poet's Corner. To the account of his death his son appends words from the "Ode on the Death of Wellington" which are no less applicable to Tennyson:

"On God and Godlike men we build our trust.
Hush, the Dead March wails in the people's ears:
The dark crowd moves, and there are sobs and tears:
The black earth yawns: the mortal disappears;
Ashes to ashes, dust to dust;
He is gone who seemed so great.—
Gone; but nothing can bereave him
Of the force he made his own
Being here, and we believe him
Something far advanced in state,
And that he wears a truer crown
Than any wreath that man can weave him.
But speak no more of his renown,
Lay your earthly fancies down,
And in the vast cathedral leave him.
God accept him, Christ receive him."

WILLIAM CLARK, D.C.L.

* Some of these details we are the more careful to preserve, as they are only referred to in the Memoir. The present Lord Tennyson probably thought they had been recorded sufficiently in the periodical press; but these records perish. It may be hoped that, in future editions of the Memoir, some of these details may be reproduced.

* * *

Fortunately for us and for posterity, observes President Eliot of Harvard,* the cheap printing-press has put within easy reach of every man who can read, all the best minds both of the past and the present. For one-tenth part of a year's wages a young mechanic can buy, before he marries, a library of famous books which, if he masters them, will make him a well-read man. For half-a-day's wages a clerk can provide himself with a magazine which will keep him informed for a year of all important current events. Public libraries, circulating libraries, Sunday-school libraries, and book-clubs nowadays bring much reading to the door of every household and every solitary creature that wants to read. This is a new privilege for the mass of mankind; and it is an inexhaustible source of intellectual and spiritual nutriment. It seems as if this new privilege alone must alter the whole aspect of society in a few generations. Books are the quietest and most constant of friends; they are the most accessible and wisest of counsellors, and the most patient of teachers. With his daily work and his books, many a man, whom the world thought forlorn, has found life worth living.

* From the lecture on "The Happy Life," in "American Contributions to Civilization," by Charles Wm. Eliot, LL.D. (The Century Co., New York.)

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HELPING TO GOVERN INDIA:

I. — THE SOURCES OF INDIAN LAW

WHEN we talk about India, we are very apt to forget that India is not a single limited country, a perfectly defined political unit, with a uniform legal system, like France or Germany. If we are to understand the position of things in that vast nation of nations, we must begin by forgetting all that; to remember, instead, that India is a continent rather than a country; that the territory now governed, controlled, or protected by the British Indian Government is a huge aggregate of ruins, the remains of a long series of once mighty empires, of which a score had already fallen into desuetude long before the first dawn of national life in Europe, long before the Argonauts set sail for Colchis, in search of the Golden Fleece. And we must further remember that, although wave after wave of conquest has broken over the plains of India, for more centuries than our most daring chronologists will readily set down on paper, yet so conservative and tenacious of old customs have ever been the Indian peoples that something was preserved from each old empire and kingdom, as it disappeared, and lingers even to-day; so that our courts have to decide cases daily according to principles first enunciated ten thousand years ago, and still firmly rooted in the beliefs and usages of the people.

Then again, there is the powerful factor of race-difference; and even Indian officials hardly realize to what extent race-differences in India go. To begin with, there are races not greatly different from the Southern Europeans, say, the Spaniards or Sicilians; then again, there are races akin to the ancient Egyptians, or, perhaps to the highest peoples among the American aborigines, the Old Mexicans, or Peruvians; as a contrast to these, there are tribes, very numerous and influential, whose nearest relations are some of the Chinese or Mongol stocks; and, finally, there are peoples who probably hail from Australia, or Western Africa, or both. And, among all this medley of white men, red men, yellow men, and black men, there is not a race or tribe but has, somewhere and sometime, been sovereign within its own boundaries, made laws, and given a lasting form to its customs and traditions.

Finally, almost every one of these customs was based on a religious principle, which commended itself strongly to its original votaries, but which the passage of ages may have rendered wholly unintelligible; so that it becomes merely a mass of chance occurrences, which have no intelligible guiding principle, or even a principle which appears to our notions extravagant and fantastic. To give a single instance: the law of inheritance, among the largest section of the Indian peoples, rests on the principle that the souls of our dead ancestors to the ninth generation are dependent for their heavenly well-being on the regular performance of the rites of the dead by their descendants; the lawful heir is he, who, on purely religious principles, is determined to be qualified to offer the rites of the dead; and it is not too much to say that, in theory at any rate, the sole purpose of the inheritance is to provide the offerings to the dead in a fitting style, or, as we ourselves might put it, the son inherits, in order to give his father a first-class funeral, the ceremonies of which must include ancestors, for nine generations, in the ascending line, and must be repeated at regular intervals, until the time comes for the heir himself to be "gathered to his fathers," a phrase, meaningless enough for us, but which stands at the very heart of the rights of property in India.

Leaving out the odd and often extremely interesting usages of small tribes, and leaving out also the numerous principalities which are within the borders of India, while yet preserving their own government — we may say that there are three main sources of Indian law. Two of these are the results of the last two great conquests of India: the conquest by the English, dating practically from the middle of the last century, and the series of conquests by various Mahometan nations who poured into India by the Northwest frontier, through Persia and Afghanistan.

As the British Indian Government is now the State, and as the Criminal Law

is the regulation, with suitable penalties, of the relation between the State and the individual, it is only natural that the Criminal Law should represent the influence of England. The Criminal Code of India, indeed, represents the work of some of the most famous English jurists and legislators; men, like Lord Macaulay, Sir Henry Maine, and Justice Stephen, — whose work on the Law of Evidence is the outcome of his labors in codifying the Indian law. English legislators have also added certain laws which are the direct outcome of development under the new conditions resulting from British rule. Among these one may instance Factory Acts, Municipality Acts, Contract Acts, and the like.

When the English first came to India, they found the Mahometan Empire of the Great Mogul full of life and vigor, and with a well-developed system of law and administration. The system of the Great Mogul was based wholly on the Koran — the teachings of Mahomet and of the doctors of law, such as Abu Hanifa, who developed and applied Mahomet's system. For, while the invasions from the Northwest lasted for several centuries, and brought into India men of nearly every race in Asia — Mongols, Tartars, Arabs, Persians, Afghans, Turks, and many others, yet all this brought no diversity of law; since all these peoples passed into India through Mahometan countries, where they had embraced the faith of Islam, and, with it, a system of civil and criminal law. This Mahometan law still governs the civil rights of some fifty millions or more of the natives of India; they being very largely converts of the Mussulman invaders, rather than their descendants. The reason of their conversion has also a bearing on the question of Indian law. It is as follows: These converts, before embracing the faith of the Prophet, were for the most part mere hangers-on of the Hindu religious system — men with no privileges and any amount of social disabilities. They were ground under the heel of priestly and aristocratic privilege. A sense of ignominy, for which they were in no way to blame, and which they could do nothing to lighten, whether for themselves or for their children, dogged their steps, from the cradle to the grave. Small wonder, then, that they welcomed the opportunity to enter the fold of the far more democratic faith of Islam, in which a man's dead ancestors count for less, while he himself counts for more. We may say, in this case, that the legal relations of these men affected their religion, rather than that their religion affected their legal standing; for it is conceded on all hands, that they know very little about the teaching of the Arabian prophet, except that it makes them a little more the equals of those Hindus whose insolence they endured until it became intolerable. The most important part played by the Mahometan law is the settlement of the disposition of property at marriages and deaths — especially the latter.

A far older stratum is represented by the Hindu or Brahmanical system, behind which it is not practicable to go, without raising questions which belong rather to the regions of Sanskrit scholarship than to the study of law. And, while a very large part of the Hindu or Brahmanical system is concerned with social, rather than strictly legal, matters, still it will be readily understood that, with a people so other-worldly as to consider that the first use of property is to pay for masses, much that we should consider of merely social importance becomes a matter for serious legal consideration, and finds its way, if not into the statute-books, at least into the practice of the courts.

So English law is the "quaternary" stratum, in India; Mahometan law is the "tertiary;" the Hindu or Brahmanical code is the "secondary;" the usages of the aboriginal races are the "primary;" and, to complete the metaphor, the ways of our common human nature, underlying all the rest, are the "primordial." All have contributed to the making of Indian Law, as it is actually administered in the courts to-day.

CHARLES JOHNSTON, M.R.A.S.
(late of the Bengal Civil Service).

A greater reverence for law, writes ex-President Harrison, is a sore need in this land of ours. Perhaps a better knowledge of what the laws are, how they are made, and how their defects may be remedied in an orderly way, will strengthen the conviction that they must be observed by every one. The obligation to yield reverence and obedience to the laws is not diminished, but greatly strengthened, by the consideration that they proceed from the people.

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STAINED GLASS PAINTING AND LITERATURE

WITH A REMINISCENCE OF THE HUSBAND OF MRS. M. O. W. OLIPHANT

ON a June evening, in 1855, a mother and her boy might have been seen entering a rather handsome London residence bordering on Regent's Park. Their errand was to interview the artist who lived there, with a view to apprenticing the youngster to the art of glass-staining. The name of the artist was Francis Oliphant, who, with his wife Margaret,—the gifted novelist whose death literature mourns—lived in that house a beautiful life. It was my mother who called there on that summer evening more than forty years ago, and I was the boy. I count it one of the privileges of my life to have been for a year or two so nearly connected with her who was to be so great a writer and with her high-souled husband. It is true that, in those days, an apprentice to a master was not necessarily a domestic appendage of his household. But the old, half-paternal concept of the "master's" responsibility to his apprentice's parents, in overseeing their son's moral and spiritual well-being, had not then quite died out. Certain conditions were favorable to tolerably frequent admission to the Oliphant home-circle. My services were required in the studio, and there I first learned what was meant by the terms an artist and a gentleman, for Frank Oliphant was emphatically both. I had opportunities of seeing too that he was mated with a true gentlewoman. I knew nothing then of Margaret Oliphant's budding greatness in the literary world. I knew only her goodness, gentleness, and refinement. And I could not help remarking—and it made a deep impression on me—her perfect accord with her husband, and the undisguised devotion of both of them to their child, a veritable girl fairy, whom they worshipped with much parental devotion and shortly afterwards lost by death.

The house the Oliphants occupied was on a corner between Mornington Crescent and Euston Road. A quarter of a mile off stood the works where the manufacture of stained glass windows was carried on. To these works I was removed after a comparatively short term in my master's studio. Being a manly man himself, and Scotch to the backbone, he doubtless considered that a little of the east wind of practicality, such as blew pretty strongly through the works, would be good for his new apprentice. He himself had learnt all branches of the art under James Ballantine (of whom more anon). The same hand that I had beheld making masterly designs for windows, and occasionally producing excellent sketches and cartoons, had plastered the kiln and ground colors, had twisted lead and painted glass. Whether, if he had lived, he would have obtained an equal amount of eminence in ecclesiastical art with that which his wife came to assume in literature, it is impossible to say. But he was a man of more than ordinary ability, and his wife evidently thought him her peer in heart and intellect. It was but two or three years, however, before his health failed. The works were closed, some of the apprentices chose other occupations, and I was transferred to another stained glass firm. My kind master went abroad never to return, for he died shortly afterwards in Rome.

My remembrance of Mrs. Oliphant at that time, is that she was graceful and dignified in carriage, a little above the medium height, and that she had a sweet and spiritual face. It was a countenance that would be difficult to paint or carve, depending for its charm on its varying expression. Her cheek was clear and pale, her brow broad rather than high. But the face was delightfully lit by the dark and lustrous eyes—eyes that their owner's only daughter inherited, that remained on one's memory beaming with kindness and a something besides that was indefinable and attractive. It was a face not easily forgotten, and hard to recall without affection and a tender regret.

The name of James Ballantine has been mentioned as being the tutor or instructor of Francis Oliphant. Ballantine was a pupil of Pugin's and himself a poet. To

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the lovers of Scotch verse the name of James Ballantine should be one of honor. "Ilka blade of grass has its ain drap o' dew," is worthy to be coupled with Burns's apostrophe "To a mountain daisy." This still celebrated poem, viz: "Ilka blade o' grass" — appeared in a volume of verse published in Jamaica, whither the poet-artist had gone in search of health. It found its way to Scotland in those pre-ocean greyhound times too late, happily, for the great critic of "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," and too late for any scant attention from his publisher-namesake. James Ballantine also wrote some now forgotten novels and was the "idle singer" of some unsung songs. His chief literary work, however, was a biography, in which his artistic sympathies were most enthusiastically enlisted. This was a life sketch of the great Scotch architectural colorist, David Roberts. The work was a discriminating effort, and fairly sets forth to his contemporaries what we of a later age the better appreciate, — the peculiarities and excellencies of this delightful limner of cathedrals, abbeys and towers.

Apart from any literary defects that may be said to belong to this biography, we owe a debt of gratitude in these days to James Ballantine, for telling us so much, and telling it so well, of this gifted water-color artist Roberts. Ballantine's connection with the subject of this paper was set forth in "A Treatise on Stained Glass and Its Applicability to Every Style of Architecture." This was an effort to interest architects and the art-loving public in the subject he had so much at heart, viz: the revival of stained glass as a permanent decoration in all public buildings. Whatever may have been the literary shortcomings of this last effort, it had the effect of bringing its author into public notice. James Ballantine was appointed one of the royal fine-art commissioners to provide stained windows for Barry and Pugin's new Houses of Parliament in London. The windows in the House of Lords were the product of Ballantine and his pupils, of whom there is no reason to doubt that young Oliphant was one; but it is curious to observe that whilst the influence of the two Pugins, father and son, are so apparent in the glass windows at Westminster, James Ballantine personally affected a broader, a more pictorial and non-ecclesiastical style of work, for in the great display of stained glass at the London Exhibition of 1862 Ballantine's firm was represented by a large window, presumably designed for a public hall or municipal building, with a representation of Burns or Scott treated after what is technically termed the Modern School. The window was regarded as a picture on a transparent surface, eliminating as much as possible lead work, and using enamels on white glass for soft gradations, and cutting the colored draperies, etc., in very large pieces.

Altogether this art-work produced that "pictorial" effect, so-called, so much more acceptable to the general public than the severe, austere, and it may be said correct, method of painting glass for the adornment of public buildings. This divergence of view on styles has resulted in the usual acrimonious controversy between experts and the advocates of the schools, and is of little interest to the general public. Suffice it to say, that it is as absurd to be didactic in this as in any other branch of art or art manufacture. No hard and fast line can be consistently drawn. The character of the building to be provided with glass and the knowledge and ability of the artist, are and should be the great determining factors. For example, one may point, at the one extreme, to the best early work of Hardman and Son, of Birmingham, at the other, to the latest art-triumph of La Farge or the Tiffany Company in this country; whilst between these is every shade of excellence (as well as of non-excellence) with modification and combination of the two elements — from good firms employing able artists on both continents.

This digression marks a hiatus in the personal history of the young artist we are dealing with, for we find Francis Oliphant next removed to the firm of Wailes, of Newcastle-on-Tyne. Why he left the Ballantines for the English firm is not clear, but there he was for many years, there he learned most of the craft, and from thence he came, like most clever young Scotchmen, ultimately to London.

But although he resembled most of the lusty Celts who have so successfully invaded the Southron's stronghold in his ambition and aims and in his bright

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mentality, there was one fatal omission of a young Scot's equipment, and that was health. The seeds of consumption were there, and it is only within the Oliphants' own domestic circle that the history of the battle with this great destroyer can be known. Margaret Oliphant alone knew the secret of that fell conflict which in turn robbed her of daughter, of husband, and of both sons.

If little is known of the life-work of Francis Oliphant, perhaps it was the wish of her who cherished his memory and had so sensitive a dread of publicity that little should be known. Those associated with him in his art are scattered over the globe, and not a few are now beneath the sod with him in earth's final resting-place. Perhaps the man who could most enlighten us is Sebastian Evans, an Oxford graduate, who was connected during the last year of his business residence in London with Frank Oliphant; a man of culture and attainment, and a poet of recognized power. He was one whom the elder Pugin had inspired with a love of ecclesiastical art, and who, I believe, is now engaged in the commerce connected with stained glass, in one of the larger towns in England. Another man named Harry Roe, would also be a notable character. He was a talented and skilful glass painter (also a good musician) who painted the figure work for Frank Oliphant during his London career.

There is a short public record of Oliphant in the "Dictionary of National Biography" [London], to the effect that Francis Wilson Oliphant was born August 31st, 1818 and died in 1859 at Rome; that he got his art education, at the Edinburgh Art School; that he worked with Pugin — (this would be the *second* Pugin) — at the windows for the new Houses of Parliament and also for the Wailes', of Newcastle-on-Tyne; that he was not a glass painter only, but had two pictures accepted and favorably noticed in the Royal Academy — one of an historical subject, the meeting of Richard II. and John of Gaunt, the other "the Return of the Prodigal;" that he married his cousin Margaret Wilson Oliphant, "then beginning to be known as a writer and who has since achieved a great reputation in many departments of literature;" that he painted some windows well known to the archæological world for their beauty, as for instance at King's College, Cambridge, at Aylesbury Church, and at Ely Cathedral; those in the cloister at this Cathedral were designed by William Dyce, R. A., and painted by Frank Oliphant and the Harry Roe before mentioned. Further that he published a small treatise entitled "A Plea for Painted Glass;" that he died in Rome, October 1859, leaving a widow (the authoress) and two sons, both of whom died in early manhood, the youngest, after the father's death, having previously assisted his mother in her compilation of her "Victorian Age of Literature" in 1892.

All this is meagre enough as biography, yet it is strange that the authors of even such material should be subject to mistaken impressions, for most biographical sketches of the Oliphants (and I have read many), nearly all in fact, omit mention of their only daughter, the beautiful girl of whom I have already spoken, and who died in Rome on her 15th birthday. The London "Critic" gets confused concerning Mrs. Oliphant's husband, telling us that his name was Laurence, not Francis. This is explained by the fact that Laurence, the great traveller, scientist, and diplomatist, was also a cousin, whose biography Margaret Oliphant wrote, stating that she was "related to him both by blood and marriage," and by the facts also, that her husband (Francis) was less known to fame, and that it was known she married a cousin.

Some may consider such a point scarcely worth the settling, save in justice to a good master and an able artist. The writer, moreover, has the temerity to desire that his identity should be connected with that of the great and gifted woman whose loss literature has so much occasion to reget.

Margaret Oliphant prefaced "The Makers of Modern Rome" with a noble dedication to her loved ones. There is little wonder at this, since the seven-hilled city must be to her but a mausoleum, although a noble and imposing one, for the sepulchring of some of her earthly treasures. I would not pry into the sacredness of such grief, but now that the chief mourner has departed to the same bourne as her loved ones, my object is to add my own humble wreath to

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the many that adorn the great writer's tomb.

To follow too insistently the line connecting stained glass with literature would, I fear, make tedious reading, while the pretension would be absurd that assumed that all artists who devoted themselves to stained glass were necessarily of a literary turn. I assigned myself no other task than that of opposing a loose floating idea in the public mind in a contrary direction. This is but justice to the many good men connected with this art.

An ecclesiastical designer is not necessarily a man of one idea, full of architectural pedantry. This estimate, however well it may fit some present apostles of the cult, is at least erroneous and unjust as applied to the pioneers referred to, who have been, either in their own persons or through their immediate associates, not without honor in the realm of letters. Milton's

> "Storied windows richly dight
> Casting a dim religious light"

is an influence that would naturally attract the votary of the cloister, the scholar, and the man of taste rather than the mere dabblers in the commercial side of the stained glass art.

The art element in stained glass is another branch of the subject entirely, and has been amply dealt with recently in "The Century" and other magazines by those who speak with authority. We know the good work done by such men on this continent as La Farge, and Tiffany, and Will Lowe; and in Britain by Henry Holiday, Walter Crane, Sir Burne Jones, and, last but not least, the late William Morris. We know that the last named holds deservedly a foremost place in the ranks of literature, and many of the others hold honorable positions among the wielders of the pen; but it may not be generally known, that behind these great leaders, and not so far behind either, are good men and true, who have done more than yeoman service both in the cause of literature and in the foremost of decorative arts, as stained glass is conceded to be. It were a tempting theme to continue biographical reminiscences of some eminent glass-painters from the great pioneers mentioned to those of a more recent date, but the subject requires and deserves a separate paper. SAMUEL MOLYNEUX JONES.

BACTERIA — OUR UNSEEN FRIENDS AND FOES

If our eyesight were not so limited we could discern legions of friends and foes around us. There are innumerable companies of friends thronging the air, who, by their ceaseless activity, are bestowing incalculable benefactions, making the conditions of life favorable, and enhancing the blessings of existence. Do you know these friends? Let me introduce you. They are known by the family name of Bacteria. Look about the room or out of a window; the air is transparent and seems pure; but glance obliquely across a ray of sunshine from the window, and you see great numbers of floating particles. You will say these particles are dust, lint from the carpet, and the like; and we agree with you. But floating about with them, and carried along in the same way, are minute organisms, thousands and millions of them perhaps, and so small that of some species 250,000 of them could dance on the head of a pin, if they belonged to the class of beings that delight to "trip the light fantastic."

Most people start at the mention of bacteria. They think of them as rapacious animals, seeking whom they may devour, the cause of disease, and the instruments of death. Last summer our little six-year-old girl went to visit Grandma. A few recent raindrops, after a "dry spell," had spotted the window pane and the little miss, when invited to take a seat before it, immediately withdrew exclaiming: "Grandma, why don't you wash your window? there's more than a million microbes on it." In like manner, older people start at the suggestion of microbes or bacteria; and yet most of these bacteria are valuable friends. Indeed we could not live were it not for their existence. You hesitate to accept this assertion yet it can be readily proven. In the first place,

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bacteria are not animal, as nearly everyone supposes, but, vegetable organisms. They do not eat their food like the animal, but, like the plant, they absorb nourishment from other materials. However, that which serves as food for bacteria could not be used by plants, as the latter do not possess the power of obtaining their carbonic acid gas, nitrogen, and other essential elements, from preformed organic matter, as do bacteria. But, through that bacterial activity, well known as fermentation and putrefaction, these complex organic substances are resolved into the simpler compounds, carbonic acid, ammonia and water, and these in turn are taken up and appropriated by the vegetable kingdom. As the production of these gases by the animal world is insufficient to meet the demands of the chlorophyl or leaf-green plants, the part that bacteria play in nature in supplying this deficiency is of vital importance. Deprive higher vegetation of the carbon and nitrogen prepared for it through bacterial activity, and its development would rapidly cease. Without the food-stuffs supplied by the vegetable world, animal life would not be possible. Why does the farmer or gardener enrich his land each year? The materials used are changed, through bacterial activity, into products necessary to the growth and development of crops.

It is estimated that one gram (fifteen grains) of dirt may contain from 5,000,000 to 50,000,000 bacteria. In this interesting process we find the fertilizer being, first, decomposed into nitrogen, and albuminoid ammonia. Nitrogen is eliminated as free ammonia, which is converted into nitrites, and the nitrites into nitrates, from which plant life is evolved by aid of the sun's rays. This process is brought about by nitrifying bacteria, and is known as nitrification. Unless soil is enriched, it runs out, or becomes sterile; for the bacteria die from want of nourishment, and vegetation cannot thrive, as it is then unable to obtain properly-formed material essential to its growth.

You can imagine how disgusted many a lady would look should you say to her: "Madam, your bread-dough is teeming with bacteria." Doubtless it would be immediately thrown out, although not differing from any other. Women have long mixed bacteria in their bread-dough and yet have not been cognizant of the fact. Yeast is one form of bacteria. The sponge is set in a warm place to rise. Moderate heat being favorable to the growth of bacteria their cells develop rapidly, the sugar and starch are converted into alcohol and carbonic acid gas, and it is this carbonic acid gas that puffs up the dough and makes it light. When the bread is baked, the bacteria are killed by the heat.

Certain forms of fermentative bacteria are instrumental in producing vinegar, and various fermented wines and liquors. The majority of bacteria act as scavengers, reducing dead organic matter to simpler compounds. Were it not for this, all waste or dead organic matter might remain unchanged, and lying about become a nuisance. It is no doubt a blessing that decomposing animal matter has such an unsavory odor that man hastens to put it out of reach of the sense of smell. In this way bacteria may be said to guard the citadel of life and from the watch-tower sentinels warn us of the approach of danger.

While by far the greater number of bacteria are harmless, there are a few that do produce disease, and these we have termed our foes.

There are more deaths each year from consumption than any other disease; and here the tubercle bacillus is the active agent. Pneumonia, diphtheria, typhoid fever, etc., all have their respective germs always present in the disease. The mouth is a veritable incubator for microorganisms of various kinds, and but for the wise provision of nature we should probably suffer more from them than we do; for frequently the bacteria of tuberculosis, pneumonia, diphtheria, and others, are found in the mouths of healthy persons. Their presence, however, does not necessitate disease, for the human body in a perfect state of health is immune from disease. It is when the vitality of the system is lowered, and some of the functions impaired, that these disease-producing germs find favorable soil for growth and multiplication.

We have said that bacteria obtain their nourishment by absorption only; how then, can they be destructive to human life? The disease-producing germs excrete poisonous substances, termed toxines, which are taken into the

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circulation and poison the system of the invalid. Thus we see that danger lies more in the products of most disease-producing germs than in the direct action of the bacteria themselves.

Minor diseases, such as cankered mouth, suppurative processes, and even decay of the teeth, are caused by bacteria. It does seem as though a specific bacterium has been found for almost every ailment, and now some enthusiastic investigator claims to have discovered the microbe of "old age." Were this possible, we are inclined to believe that a large percentage of our inhabitants would declare war and neglect their business to investigate means of exterminating at least this species of insolent invaders.

L. PRENTISS BETHEL.

A PEASANT PAINTER—JEAN FRANÇOIS MILLET*

THE humanity and poetry of peasant life were the keynotes of Jean François Millet's painted harmonies. "The gay side of life never shows itself to me," he declared. "The gayest thing I know is the calm, the silence, which is so sweet, either in the forest or cultivated land. . . . You will admit that it is very dreamy, and a sad dream, though often delicious. Sometimes in a sterile portion you see figures hoeing and digging. From time to time one rises and straightens his back, wiping his forehead with the back of his hand. 'Thou shalt eat thy bread in the sweat of thy brow.' Is this the gay, jovial work some people would have us believe? But, nevertheless, to me it is true humanity and great poetry. . . . I am a peasant, a peasant!"

Away with him, the portrayer of unnaturalness, the painter of barrenness, the perpetuator of false uncouthness! This was the spirit of the masters of established methods, who sought by bluster and scorn to brush aside the innovator, pausing not in their denunciations to catch the spirit, which was the substance, of the new productions. How should ye interpret that which has in nowise come into your hearts or experience? I paint the dull tragedies, the slow imaginings, the ungaining sacrifices of my own. This was the spirit of Millet. The childhood of the lad, though bare and colorless, was not unhappy. His grandmother was his nurse while others of the family were afield, and the words, "Waken, waken, my little François, the little birds have long been singing the glory of God," was the loving *réveille* which called him from slumber. The atmosphere of his Gréville home was that of sincere piety and serious tenderness. His father, an unrhyming, unlettered poet, and an untaught sculptor, directed the attention of his son to the glories of nature, and modelled for him rude figures in clay. The nature of the boy was responsive, sweet, and earnest. A professor in a Versailles High School, who encountered him during a vacation, reported that he "had met a child whose soul was as charming as poesy itself."

Through the instructions of his uncle, Charles Millet, the village curé, the lad early acquired a taste for the Ecologues and Georgics of Virgil. He also took great delight in the Latin Bible, copying its plates with absorbed interest in his times of rare leisure. He was continually sketching on bits of paper, pieces of wood, anything, indeed, which presented a surface, but the conviction that his son should become an artist did not come to the elder Millet till one evening when the lad, returning from the fields in his father's company, snatched up a piece of charcoal and drew with startling distinctness the bent figure of an old peasant who was hobbling by.

Millet the younger had at this time sketched so many Bible scenes with such skill that the attention and admiration of his townspeople were aroused, and some of the drawings were taken to the artist Langlois, in Cherbourg, for his opinion. Langlois, recognized the boy's potentialities, and soon afterwards received him as a pupil. It was through the influence of this artist that later on the town

*See sketch of Millet [1814–1875] in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XVI., page 321. Also, "Jean François Millet: His Life and Letters," by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady).
—ED. S. C.

council of Cherbourg voted a hundred and twenty dollars to send Jean for a year's study in Paris. To this sum the town of Gréville, near the Normandy village of Gruchy, the place of Millet's birth, added sixty dollars.

Absorbed in his work the student heeded but little the privations which his first year's income was insufficient to relieve, but during his second Paris year, when no funds beyond sixty dollars from the Cherbourg council came to him, he often suffered from cold and want of food. The conventional methods of his instructor, Delaroche, were utterly at variance with all his convictions and tendencies, and his attempts to shape his ideas to those of his teacher kept him in a state of morbid irritability. It must have been a misfortune which had its compensations when, at the beginning of his second year, he was obliged to abandon the Delaroche studio on account of inability to pay his tuition fees.

Now came a time of great trial. Alone in Paris, almost without money, entirely without friends, he spent his evenings in the library of St. Genevieve reading of artists, and his days wandering about the Louvre, where he unconsciously gained from his prolonged studies of Lesueur, Correggio, Fra Angelico, Michael Angelo, and Poussin, the foundation for his own future style. He declared that but for this companionship at the Louvre he would have fled from Paris and given up art, for "he was awkward and feared ridicule, and spoke to no one."

He now tried to live by his brush, but his pictures did not sell, and he was glad to receive commissions for signs, and thankfully prepared illustrations. Under the stress of actual necessity—he was now married a second time, and had several children—he began to paint the nude. He produced rapidly, and many beautiful and delicate, though unrobed, figures grew beneath his brush. One day he heard from a group of men who were gathered near a dealer's window, wherein was exhibited one of his nude productions, remarks which convinced him that his work suggested to others thoughts far less pure than those with which they were painted. He hastened to his wife, telling her that with her consent he should give up painting the nude, though this meant that they and their children must be colder and hungrier, and more meanly clad, than they had yet been. The heroic proposition was heroically met, and the nude painting was abandoned.

Millet had been refused admission to the Salon in 1842, but in 1844 he began regular exhibitions. In 1848 his "Winnower" was hung in the place of honor, and sold for five hundred francs. During this year he was brought near to death's door by rheumatic fever. While he was ill the family suffered much distress, having for some time lacked the bare necessaries of life. Just after this sickness came the February revolution, bringing with it a time of terrible struggle for French artists. It was at this period that Millet tried etching, producing with the crudest materials some beautifully pathetic designs, most of which, however, he failed to sell. In 1855 came another time of severe struggle. It was during this year that the almost starving condition of the Millet family was relieved by the contributions of artist friends. His friend M. Sensier says that when the artist Diaz appeared with the money "Millet sat in his studio on a box, with his back bent like a man chilled. When the money was handed to him, he replied, 'Thank you. It comes in time. We have not eaten for two days, but the children have had food until to-day;' and calling to his wife, cried, 'I am going to get wood, I am very cold.'"

When the insurrection of June came, Millet had thirty francs. "On this we lived for two weeks," he said. About this time he exchanged six drawings for a pair of shoes, a picture for a bed, sold four portraits, among them those of Diaz and Barye, for twenty francs for the lot, and charming sketches from one to five francs each.

In 1859, driven by political turmoil and cholera, he left Paris, and in Barbizon, near the entrance to the Forest of Fontainbleau, he established the home in which he was happiest, and in which he remained till he died. It was at Barbizon that he found Théodore Rousseau, a fellow artist, who proved one of the most helpful and generous friends of his life, himself buying some of his pictures, and doing a thousand other kindly acts.

In a dark studio at the end of the garden which he planted and hoed, Millet painted most of the works which have made him famous. Year after year the

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condemnation of his pictures increased, but he continued to show forth that which people and things "made him feel" in such impressively strong paintings as "The Sower," "The Water Carrier," "The Gleaners," and "The Angelus." He was irregularly engaged upon the latter picture from 1855 to 1858, his brother Pierre posing for the male figure. The female figure was drawn from imagination. While the picture was in progress an American gentleman agreed to take the picture when it was finished, for three hundred and sixty dollars. On the completion of the painting the gentleman, who was travelling, could not be found, and it was sold to a Belgian for six hundred dollars. It has since passed through many hands, and is now valued at a hundred thousand dollars.

In 1867 several of Millet's paintings were exhibited in a collection, and in 1868 he was made a Chevalier of the Legion of Honor. In 1870 he exhibited at the Salon for the last time. Just before his death, in 1875, he received an order for four pictures at three thousand dollars each, and a commission for a decoration for St. Genevieve, Paris, for which he was to receive twelve thousand dollars. He was too feeble even to prepare a sketch for one of these pictures. His paintings now command almost any price which may be named for them.

In 1885 there was placed upon a rock at Barbizon, near the entrance of the Forest of Fontainbleau, a bronze plaque containing the faces of Millet and Rousseau, and the towns of Cherbourg and Gréville have raised monuments to this greatest of genre painters. Thus Appreciation showers her slow favors upon a grave, and tardy Honor brings her laurels to lay upon a heart which in life ached in vain for encouragement.

LIDA A. CHURCHILL.

THE SERVICE RENDERED BY THE HEROES OF THE CIVIL WAR*

THE personal heroism of the men we commemorate here — of those who survived as well as of those who fell — had two elements which are especially affecting and worthy of remembrance. In the first place, these men went through all the squalor, wretchedness, and carnage of war without having any clear vision of their country's future. They did not know that victory was to crown the Union cause; they did not know that the nation was to come out of the four years' struggle delivered from slavery, united as never before, and confident, as never before, in its resources and its stability. One of the worst horrors in 1860–61, before the war opened, was the sickening doubt whether we really had any country.

Civil war is immeasurably worse than any other war, because it inevitably creates just this terrible doubt about the national future. It was not till 1864–65 that it became plain that the North would ultimately win military success, and even then all men saw that after military success would come immense civil difficulties. The heroism of the soldiers on both sides, and the pathos of their sufferings and sacrifices, are greatly heightened by their inability to forecast the future. Like all devoted souls, they walked by faith, and not by sight. Most of the men whose names are written on these walls died with no shout of victory in their ears, or prospect of ultimate triumph before their glazing eyes. To console them in their mortal agony, in their supreme sacrifice, they had nothing but their own hope and faith.

Secondly, the service these men rendered to their country was absolutely disinterested. No professional interest in war influenced them. No pay, or prize money, or prospect of pension had the least attraction for them. They offered their services and lives to the country, just for love, and out of determination that, if they could help it, the cause of freedom should take no harm. . . . On the spur of the moment they abandoned promising civil careers, dear homes, and the natural occupations of men who had received collegiate training, for the savage destructions and butcheries of war. No mercenary motive can be attributed to any of them. This disinterestedness is essential to their heroic quality. . . . The world has long since determined the limits of its occasional respect for mercenary soldiers. It admires in such only the faithful fulfilment of an immoral contract, The friends we commemorate here had in view no outward rewards near or remote.

To these heroes of ours, and to all soldiers of like spirit in the Civil War, we owe debts which can never be paid except in respect, admiration, and loving remembrance. We owe to them the demonstration that out of the hideous losses and horrors of war, as out of pestilences, famines, shipwrecks, conflagrations, and the blastings of the tornado, noble souls can pluck glorious fruits of self-sacrifice and moral sublimity. And, further, we owe them a great uplifting of our country in dignity, strength, and security.

*An address delivered in Memorial Hall, Harvard University, May 30, 1896, by President C. W. Eliot, LL.D. From "American Contributions to Civilization," New York: The Century Co., 1897.

THE FIFTY-FIFTH UNITED STATES CONGRESS:

A STUDY FROM THE "DIRECTORY" OF ITS SELF-MADE MEN

ONE of the most interesting of government publications has a very limited circulation and is little known outside of Washington and the newspaper offices of the country. This is the "Congressional Directory," published each session. It contains brief biographies of the members, assignments to Committees, a list of leading government officials with a schedule of their duties, and other information of interest particularly in Washington. The most interesting feature, however, is the biographical department. These sketches are usually furnished by the members themselves. Though brief, they are full of interest. In spite of all that is being so often said about poor representatives of the people being sent to Washington, Congressmen are, as a rule, men of unusual ability, and they are able representatives of their constituents.

Death of Senator Harris

A study of the lives of the present membership discloses some very interesting information. There are 357 Representatives, 3 Territorial delegates, 89 Senators, and one vacancy caused by the contest of Senator (?) Corbett for the Oregon seat. Two of the oldest members in point of service who were elected to this Congress are now dead. Senator Isham G. Harris, of Tennessee, died last July, after one of the most remarkable public careers in our history, being exceeded in its peculiarities only by that of Sam Houston. Mr. Harris first went to Congress in 1849, and was in the service of his State or held federal office almost continuously until his death. In his death the Senate lost its most picturesque member. The membership of the House of Representatives includes 204 Republicans, 123 Democrats, 27 Populists, and 3 Silverites.

William S. Holman, of Indiana, sometimes called the "watch-dog of the Treasury," also died last summer. He had served more years in the House than any other member, his service dating back to before the civil war. Altogether there have already been seven changes due to death and resignations since Congress began — an unusual number.

Many New Members

Another feature of the present Congress is the absence of many men who were prominent figures a few years ago. The war brought out a new crop of Congressmen, but most of these are dead or have retired from public life. This does not mean that there are not many veterans on both sides. But the men who came into prominence thirty years ago by reason of the war are nearly all dead, the most conspicuous survivor in the House being ex-Speaker Galusha A. Grow, of Pennsylvania, who retired in 1863, to reappear some thirty years later. In the Senate, there are more men running back to the war-period than in the House. The most conspicuous is Senator Morrill, who has been in one House or the other for nearly fifty years. John Sherman, who also served before the war, retired from this Congress to become Secretary of State.

Veterans of both Armies

But veterans of the war are still numerous in both Houses. There are fifty-eight men who served in the Union army or navy and forty-seven who served in the Confederate forces. These veterans vary in rank all the way from privates to a lieutenant-general, the latter being the intrepid Joe Wheeler, of Alabama. In the House, the ex-Confederates were many of them privates, in spite of the jest that there were none in the South. What is of unusual interest is the fact that the South is sending more than its proportion of young men. It used to be that the young men came largely from the West, where opportunities were greater, but with the retirement of the Old Guard in the South the young men are rapidly forging to the front. This is in part explained by the fact that the Populists have large influence there and they have encouraged new blood rather than had recourse to former leaders.

The Average Age of Members

The average age of all the members is fifty-two years, the lowest, it is believed, on record. The average in the Senate is slightly higher, but the recent selection of young Senators has greatly

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reduced the former average. Most of the men above sixty-five are in the Senate. There are in Congress seventy men not over forty and sixty-seven over sixty years of age. The oldest man in Congress is Senator Morrill, who is in his eighty-eighth year. The oldest man in the House is Mr. Grow, who is seventy-five.

Our Congress differs from any other in the world in the fact that about one-half of the members are lawyers. In other countries business men and professional men other than lawyers, together with those of the leisure class, predominate. One reason for the predominance of lawyers in this country is that they find politics an aid to their profession. The lawyer is better known to the public as a speaker than any one else, and is willing to devote more of his time to stump speaking than is a business man. We have a very small leisure class in this country, and very few in this class care to go into politics. In fact our men of leisure consist almost exclusively of those who inherit wealth. In European countries it is quite the custom for a man who has amassed a competence, even if not a large one, to retire from business and spend his time in the cultivation of the mind. With us, it is an unusual event for a man to retire unless he is quite old, when he has neither time nor inclination for politics.

Our Congress unlike those of Europe

Those who have visited parliamentary bodies in Europe have noticed the marked difference in the appearance of the members of those bodies as compared with our own, and an especial difference is observable in the manner of conducting the proceedings. It is rare that desks are provided for members in a European parliament. Benches only are provided, and there is a compact government party and a more or less compact opposition. Ordinarily, there is a small attendance, and the proceedings usually are dull. But when some great measure is on, the benches are crowded, and sometimes the most exciting scenes prevail, particularly in France and Austro-Hungary. The riotous proceedings in the latter last December threatened the existence of the dual monarchy.

In our own Congress every member has a desk, and members will usually be found writing, reading, or engaged in conversation, so that it is difficult from the gallery to keep track of the proceedings.

When there is an important bill up, there is more order. In our Congress the Speaker has practical control of the whole course of legislation, and no one can speak nor can a bill be brought up without his consent. This has been found necessary because of the large membership and the great number of bills. The Speaker and the Committee on Rules, of which the Speaker is the practical autocrat, take the place of the government ministry in other nations.

Benches were once Tried

At one time before the war the desks were taken out and benches put in, in the hope that it would expedite business and help to preserve order. The experiment was not a success, and it was soon given up. Just now there is an agitation in favor of putting benches in once more. It would put the members in a much more restricted space and would enable speakers to be better heard by the members, though it is to be feared that it would be difficult to keep a quorum present. It is to be hoped that the experiment will be tried, for at present it is difficult for members who want to follow the doings of the House to do so unless they are advantageously situated.

One notable feature of the personnel of an American Congress is the quick, nervous motions of the members and their animated countenances. Of course, there are leaders by common consent on the floor, yet any one has a right to plunge into debate or engage in repartee if he gets the opportunity. When important bills are before the House, the Committee on Rules usually assigns the time for debate, which is divided between the two parties. The member in charge of the bill apportions the time on his side and the leader of the opposition apportions what is allotted to him among the members who desire to speak. Usually there is not enough time for half those who desire to speak, and there are many heartburnings as a result. This applies to general as well as to partisan measures. Those who do not get a chance to speak are comforted by being allowed to print their speeches in the "Congressional Record," which each

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member can send to his constituents, who do not know that he did not open his mouth on the subject. The "leave to print" got to be so much abused that it is now greatly restricted, but is still ample for all real necessities of members who want to air their views.

Speaker Reed's Commanding Position

In the present House the commanding figure is the Speaker, the Hon. Mr. Reed. He would command attention anywhere. There has been a great deal of talk about his being a "tyrant," etc., but the fact that his "rules" were practically adopted by the opposition when in power show that they are based on just considerations. In fact, without the present system it would be impossible to conduct any business in the face of a determined opposition. It is obviously best that the majority should exercise their power and stand or fall by it afterwards.

Some Republican Leaders

Mr. Dingley, as leader of the Republicans on the floor, is not a man to attract attention, aside from the strong intellectuality expressed in his face. He looks as if he might be a college professor, but he is always alert, knows all that is going on every minute on the floor, and manages to keep his party well in hand. His position as Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means gives him great power over legislation. He knows every day the exact financial condition of the government finances, receiving daily information before going to the House.

Mr. Cannon, one of the oldest men in point of service in the House, as Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, also wields a great deal of power. He is a striking looking figure, and is always willing to enter into debate in which he seldom gets worsted.

Mr. Hitt, as Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, has been a conspicuous figure in the present Congress. He represents the administration in its foreign policy and particularly as regards the Cuban question. His position has been one of great delicacy. It is known that a large majority of the House is in favor of granting belligerent rights to the Cubans, and that the measure would pass if it ever came to a vote. Mr. Hitt has been successful up to the present writing in preventing a direct vote.

Conspicuous in appearance and by reason of his close friendship to the President is Gen. Grosvenor, who had charge of the Washington end of McKinley's canvass for the nomination in 1896. He has been a long time in Congress, is a ready speaker, though apt to be caustic.

Mr. Hepburn is another of the leaders on the floor who is quick in debate and is personally one of the most popular men in the House. Other leaders are Walker, of Massachusetts, Chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency, an important post; Payne, of New York; Dalzell, of Pennsylvania; Bingham, of Pennsylvania; Henderson, of Iowa; and Boutelle, of Maine.

Some Leaders of the Opposition

The Democratic side of the House is not so well organized. The recent split in the party over financial questions has made unanimity on the floor of Congress impossible. The nominal leader of the Democratic side is Mr. Bailey, of Texas, a young man of parts, who has gained notoriety by refusing to wear a dress suit. This has given many a wrong impression of his abilities, which are admitted. That his leadership is not complete, is not entirely his fault, for the reasons already stated. The most picturesque figure is Mr. Lewis, of Washington, who a few years ago was a dock hand, but is now wealthy, and is a leading figure on the floor of the House. In the matter of clothes, he is particularly noticeable, and it is said that while speaking he averages three hundred words or more a minute.

The old time Democratic leaders are Benton McMillin, of Tennessee; Gen. Wheeler, of Alabama, and Richardson, of Tennessee. These are all that are left of the Old Guard which was so prominent a few years ago. In fact, counting the whole of the present term, there are only forty-three members who have served ten years and over. A great many leading Republicans were permanently retired in the slump of 1892, and a great many Democrats were permanently retired in the Republican sweep of 1894. Many of the new men who came in at these elections are still in Congress, and a great number of them are young men.

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Different methods in the Senate

The Senate is so different in its methods that leadership there is based on different considerations from those that rule in the House. In the Senate there are no rules to terminate debate, and discussion can go on until every one is ready to vote. This has been the practice from the beginning, and all efforts to change it have failed. The oldest Senator in point of service, as well as in years, is Morrill, of Vermont. He was many years in the House, and was in charge of the tariff bill of 1860–61, which bears his name. He is constant in his attendance in the Senate, and usually speaks on financial or commercial questions. He is always listened to with the respect which his years, service, and abilities excite. He is not, however, the Republican leader, nor is there any one Senator who holds that distinction. A group composed of Aldrich, Allison, Quay, Frye, Hoar, Cullom, Burrows, Platt, Spooner, and Thurston, are the real leaders of the Republican wing.

On the Democratic side, Jones, of Arkansas; Vest, Morgan, Cockrell, and Turpie are the leaders. Of the Populists proper, Mr. Allen is the leader, though Butler, of North Carolina, is the head of the party. Mr. Kyle, though a Populist, in many cases affiliates with the Republicans. The most conspicuous group in many respects are those former Republicans who have separated from the party on financial questions. Intellectually, there are some very strong men among them. Stewart, Jones, of Nevada, and Teller are men of wide experience, besides being able speakers for the silver cause.

Present and Past Congresses

A great deal is said in these days about the degeneracy of the Senate, in fact about the degeneracy of both houses of Congress. There are many people who believe that the present Congress is far below the average intellectual ability and moral worth of Congresses fifty years or more ago. This reminds one of the witty saying of an Englishman. A lady complained to him that she thought London "Punch" was not as good as it used to be.

"Madam," he replied, "it never was."

There is a great deal of truth in this statement. We are all prone to exaggerate the blessings of the past and to be pessimistic as to the present. No opinion on any such subject should be given without some knowledge of the facts. This writer has made a careful study of American history for many years and is not inclined in the least to be pessimistic. If we except the Congress of 1849–51, there is probably no Congress of the past that excels in ability that of the present. In making this exception, reference is made only to the few individuals which made that Congress famous. So far as the mass was concerned, it should be judged by its acts, and certainly the Clay Compromises of 1850 ought not to entitle that Congress to any great credit from posterity. Those compromises were about all that was accomplished, and they settled nothing, but introduced a discordant element into politics which lasted to the period of the Civil War.

The Great Leaders of 1850

In that Congress sat many men of renown. In the Senate were Calhoun, Webster, Clay, Benton, and Seward. It is true that it would be hard to match these men in the Senate to-day, for they were men of a type that was peculiar to their times and environment. But as legislators for the public good a favorable comparison can be made. Webster was an intellectual giant, a great orator, and yet as a constructive statesman he fell far below men of lesser note. If he were to be known alone for his legislative record he would not have the niche in history he now occupies. His reply to Hayne is one of the finest specimens of English oratory, and its value to the nation cannot be over-estimated. Yet it was not a speech on current legislation, but a reply to an attack which Webster himself pointed out had nothing whatever to do with the Foote Resolution.

Clay was undoubtedly one of the ablest of our statesmen; as a constructive legislator he had few equals. He was the fountain head of Whig policy, but Clay himself lost the presidency by reason of that fatal weakness in his constitution which led him in times of emergency to retreat from the position he had himself set up for his party, and in this Congress he left as a legacy to his country not a settlement of differences, as he hoped, but a source of irritation which reopened "the five bleeding wounds" he tried

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to heal. In this same Congress, Webster alienated from himself a great portion of his supporters who had so long clustered around him. Webster set his seal of approval on measures which he had but a short time before said he should oppose at all times, in all places, and under all circumstances.

The Case of Calhoun

Those who are the warmest believers in the later policy of John C. Calhoun do not deny that his last years were given to destroying rather than building up the nation. The doctrine of Nullification was doubted then. It is damned forever now, and there are many men in Congress to-day whose value as legislators can be overmatched by Calhoun in the last twenty years of his public career. Great as were Benton's abilities, his shortcomings were such that he cannot be held to be matchless, even in his own day. It is true that Seward occupied for twenty years an eminence in his party that cannot be equalled to-day. But even Seward was as much of a politician, in the accepted term of the word, as he was a statesman, and he ever needed a balance wheel in his career. Seward just missed being about the greatest of American statesmen. In fact, one could go through the whole list and point out that the men who were considered giants in their day were subject to all the weaknesses and liable to the same errors that are everywhere inherent in human nature though they are so soon forgotten. In spite of what Shakespeare says, the good that men do lives after them much longer than the evil.

The Fifty-fifth Congress

In saying that the Fifty-fifth Congress contains an assembly of men of high ability, combined with great capacity for intelligent legislation, and of reputable moral character, the author believes himself to be entirely justified by the facts. In times of great stress, such as we had in 1832, 1850, 1860–68, the issues bring out the best that there is in men. This country has never failed to have men of ability to grapple with great problems, nor, indeed, when the actual need arose, has any other nation lacked them. The occasion, if it does not make men, develops them. If it had not been for the Civil War, does any one suppose that we should have one-tenth of the great names of that period to honor which are now a priceless heritage to us? Discussions of commercial and financial topics do not stir the imagination or rouse the animosities so much as did the debates on human slavery; but that does not mean that the subjects are not as well handled to-day as they ever were. In fact, the law of progress is inevitable. It may have halted at times, but we are certainly progressing toward a higher and better plane in every way. The pessimist is always with us, but the man who openly asserts that the nation is in a state of moral and intellectual decay should devote a few years to the study of modern history. The man who expects that the millennium will come this year or next, is not competent to judge of either the present or the past.

Over one-half of the members of this Congress have attended college, but the graduates of the universities are few. Most of them came from small colleges, with only local reputations, some of them not up to the standard of a first-class high school. Many have had very little education.

Some Self-made Men

And now, a few words as to the personnel of some of the members, particularly of those who have won honors without having had what is known as a liberal education. Those who have attained self-culture are by no means the least conspicuous. It is impossible to speak of them all, but a few may be mentioned, with quotations from the official biographies. The names will be considered as they appear in the Congressional dictionary—by States, alphabetically.

Senator Morgan, of Alabama, is one of the best known men in Congress. He entered the Confederate service as a private and came out a brigadier-general. He had no college education. His only public office has been the senatorship, with which he has been honored four times by his State. His colleague, Senator Pettus, aged seventy-seven, also a Confederate veteran, had a college education, saw service in the Mexican war, and has served less than a year as Senator.

Alabama Representatives

Thomas Plowman is one of the few members who states his religion. He is a Methodist, and "has frequently represented his

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church at the annual and the general conferences of his denomination.

John H. Bankhead is a leading member and is "self-educated." His vocation is that of a farmer. He is serving his sixth term. He also served in the Confederate army and was "wounded three times." For some time he was a national bank president.

Arkansas Statesmen

James H. Berry, Senator from Arkansas, "received a limited education." He also has seen military service and "lost a leg" in the Confederate cause. He has been State legislator, judge, and governor and has been in the Senate thirteen years, with three more to serve.

Philip D. McCulloch, an Arkansas Representative, is one of the few men who gives his mother's maiden name. Though only forty-seven years old, he has spent much of his mature years in public life. He is now serving his third term.

California

California is represented by two comparatively young Senators. Stephen Mallory White, is only forty-five, but has been in public life for sixteen years. He tells how he was elected by a Legislature composed of Democrats, Republicans, and Populists. He was made a Senator at the age of forty, and has enjoyed a liberal education. His colleague, George C. Perkins, is a man of self-culture. He went to sea as a cabin boy and shipped for California as a sailor before the mast. He has been in public life for thirty years, though he is still under sixty. He announces that he was elected after being "a candidate before the people," a custom which does not prevail in every State but which is growing.

Connecticut

A notable figure in many respects is Mr. Sperry, of Connecticut. Without the benefit of a liberal education he has made his way in the world and has had many honors. He was for thirty-three years Postmaster at New Haven, and is considered one of the best informed men on postal affairs in the country. He was one of the bondsmen of John Ericsson during the war, for the prompt construction of "The Monitor," which arrived at Hampton Roads in time to prevent the "Merrimac" from sailing forth on a mission of destruction. Though seventy-one years old, Mr. Sperry is an active man, an efficient legislator, and a conspicuous example of what can be accomplished in life even under difficulties.

Florida

Senator Pasco, of Florida, is one of those who do not announce his date of birth, but he was born in England, as was Senator Jones, of Nevada. Representative Davis, of Florida, entered the Confederate army at fourteen years of age, and served to the end of the war. This being the case, it is not remarkable that he has made his way in the world with credit. He has served in the Legislature several terms and nearly got the nomination for governor when he was still under forty.

Georgia

Representative Livingston, of Georgia, now serving his fourth term, is one of the popular men of the House. His biography goes into ancestral details, from which we learn that his grandfather served under Washington. Mr. Livingston is a farmer and always has been, except for the four years he served as a private in the Confederate army. He is self-educated and a man of great influence in his State.

Another Georgian, John W. Maddox, also served as a private throughout the war, entering the service at fifteen. He also had only a common school education, but has made so much of his opportunities that at the age of fifty he has been in public and in honorable office for twenty years. Still another Georgian, William Henry Fleming, tells us that he borrowed money of Alexander H. Stephens, to assist in his education, which he repaid with interest. He has had a successful career, though checkered by an accident which he mentions. In 1894 he was nearly killed by a "kick in the face from a runaway horse." Fortunately he survived to reach Congress where he can do a great deal of kicking on his own account. Another Georgian, Wm. G. Brantley, announces that his nomination was "unexpected." This is a rare and frankly-stated instance.

Idaho

It is perhaps natural that most of the far Western Congressmen are men of self-culture. In that section, worth and pluck count for more than a liberal education. Both of the Senators and the lone Representative from Idaho are men who have made their

way in the world by their own unaided efforts. Senator Shoup is a conspicuous example of the type of man produced by the early frontier days.

Illinois Senator Cullom, of Illinois, is proud of the fact that physically he resembles Abraham Lincoln, whose friend he was. There are other points of resemblance. Mr. Cullom is a conservative man, with a great deal of shrewdness and common sense, and is a mine of information on historical and industrial subjects.

In the Illinois delegation are several strong men, some of whom have already been mentioned as leaders. William Lorrimer, we learn, left school at twelve years of age to make his own way in the world and was elected to Congress when he was thirty-three years old. Daniel Mills was not only thrown on his own resources when a boy, but had to support his mother. He worked hard, served through the war in the Union army, and engaged in business successfully and is now in Congress. Mr. Mills gives us the interesting information that his great-grandfather was a Quaker who came over with William Penn, and that his own mother in her infancy was a captive among the Indians.

George White was not only "a poor young man seeking employment" thirty years ago, but we are informed that his first job in a lumber yard brought him fifty dollars a month. He seems to have been a clear-headed man, for presently he had a lumber yard of his own in which to educate future Congressmen. He declined a nomination to Congress in 1884, when his district was safely Republican. Probably he could not afford to leave his business interests at that time, and, no doubt, a lawyer took his place.

Benjamin F. Marsh has a long biography, largely confined to his military career. We are informed that he "received four gunshot wounds and carries in his body rebel lead." George W. Smith started life as a blacksmith, but abandoned it for the law, and is now serving his fifth term. He is one of the few who announces his conjugal condition. He "is married."

Indiana George W. Faris, a Representative from Indiana, paid his way through college by teaching school half the time. Such perseverance deserves success, and at the age of forty he was elected to Congress. James M. Robinson, of the same State, started in life as a newsboy, left school at fourteen to become a machinist, then studied law and at thirty-five was elected to Congress. Lemuel W. Royse, his neighbor, was left an orphan and penniless at twelve years of age. At sixteen he undertook the support of his mother and two sisters, studying at night. Under these difficulties he studied law, and at twenty-eight was elected prosecuting attorney. He has been in public life ever since.

Iowa Senator John H. Gear, of Iowa, is over three score and ten, but has had a long and honorable political career, State and national. He had only a common school education, but is esteemed an unusually level-headed man. John F. Lacey, of Iowa, is serving his fourth term and is a valuable member. He had only a secondary education, served through the war, and has had a useful career. William H. Hepburn is one of the leaders of the House. He had a meagre education in the schools but a wider one in a printing office. He served with distinction in the Union army, and is now in his sixth Congressional term.

Kansas Senator W. A. Harris, of Kansas, has the unique distinction of being an ex-Confederate officer, representing a State that was not only loyal to the Union, but which was the bone of contention which precipitated the Civil War.

Jeremiah D. Botkin, of Kansas, is one of the few clergymen in Congress. Case Broderick had a common school education but has had a long public career. He is serving his fourth term. Mason E. Peters not only states that he is married, but gives the maiden name of his wife, who came from Boston. Edwin B. Ridgeley was "born in a log cabin" and had but a common school education; served in the Union army, and afterwards engaged in business. He gives his financial views at some length. He is an extreme Populist, who thinks the government should undertake a great many things for the people. "He advocates a graduated property and income tax." Charles Curtis had a common school education, and was in Congress when only

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a little over thirty. N. B. McCormick had a common school education only, and Jerry Simpson, of Medicine Lodge, known as "Sockless Jerry," was a sailor at fourteen, a soldier at twenty, and in 1878 "drifted to Kansas." He is now serving his fourth term.

Kentucky John S. Rhea, of Kentucky, bears a historic name. He informs us that in 1892 he voted against the renomination of Grover Cleveland along with Henry Watterson; that he nominated Senator Blackburn for President in the Democratic convention of 1896, but that Mr. Watterson was not a delegate—all of which seems rather irrelevant.

Walter Evans, of the Louisville district, had no liberal education, but has been prominent in Kentucky politics for thirty years. George M. Davison is only forty-two and never went to college, but has been in public office most of the time for the past seventeen years.

David G. Colson had only an elementary education and has held office since he was twenty-one. He was elected to Congress when thirty-three years old.

Louisiana Donelson Caffery, a Senator from Louisiana, is the most conspicuous sound-money man in the South. His colleague, Samuel D. McEnery, has had a varied career. He is principally known as the uncompromising foe of the Louisiana State Lottery, which is now banished to Honduras. He gives the vote by which he was elected to the Senate.

Robert F. Broussard, a Representative from Louisiana, entered public life when he attained manhood, and was only thirty-two when chosen to Congress. He made his mark in the fight against the lottery. Samuel M. Robertson, a colleague, was a college professor and was elected to Congress to succeed his father when he was himself under forty.

Maine The Maine delegation, until last June, was the oldest in point of service in Congress. Senator Hale has been thirty years in Congress, seventeen of them in the Senate. His colleague, Senator Frye, served twelve years in the House and has been for seventeen years in the Senate. Speaker Reed has served twenty-two years, Mr. Dingley seventeen, Mr. Boutelle eighteen, and Mr. Milliken, who died last summer, had served nearly as long.

Maryland The most conspicuous example in Congress of self-culture is Senator A. P. Gorman, who has just been defeated for re-election. In 1852 he was appointed a page in the Senate, and held office continuously until 1880 when he was chosen to the Senate and is now completing his third term. He is a man of broad culture, and one of the most forceful men in American politics. His colleague, Senator Wellington, is also, in the main, self-educated.

William W. McIntire, left an orphan, supported his mother by working in machine shops. John McDonald, born in Ireland, entered the regular army in 1857 and remained until 1868, when he was retired for disabilities.

Massachusetts Joseph H. Walker, of Massachusetts, before referred to, began life working in a shoe shop. William E. Barrett is a newspaper man in Boston. John F. Fitzgerald is the only Democrat in Congress from New England. Dr. Samuel Barrows, the eminent divine and editor, began life as a telegraph operator.

Michigan Senator McMillan, of Michigan, was born in Canada and is a manufacturer. His colleague, Senator Burrows, had a common school education and has served six terms in the House. Representative George Spalding has a long biography, devoted mostly to his military career. He was born in Scotland, and had merely a common school education. Edward L. Hamilton was left while young to provide for his mother, which he did successfully. Wm. A. Smith had only a common school education, but was elected to Congress when thirty-five years old. Rousseau O. Crump is a lumberman, "an active Mason," and "a Republican of the stalwart type." Carlos D. Shelden simply announces his election to the fifty-fifth Congress as a Republican.

Minnesota Senator Knute Nelson, of Minnesota, is a conspicuous example of what can be accomplished by pluck and ability, under great disadvantages. He was born in Norway, came to this country as a boy, served in the Union army, and was a member of

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the Wisconsin Legislature at the age of twenty-five. He removed to Minnesota and was in Congress at thirty-three, serving three terms. He was chosen governor twice and was elected to the Senate in 1895. Of the Minnesota Representatives, James A. Tawney began life as a blacksmith; Joel P. Heatwole was a printer; Page Morris was a college professor, and Frank Eddy a brick-maker.

Mississippi John M. Allen, of Mississippi is the wit of the House. He had a common school education and served in the Confederate army. Although only just turned fifty, he is serving his seventh term in Congress. He has several times sought to retire from active politics, but his constituents will not let him. Thomas C. Catchings is also serving his seventh term and had practically no opposition last time. William F. Love was elected to the Mississippi Legislature when twenty-one and served fourteen years.

Missouri Senator Cockrell, of Missouri, has served twenty-three years, and Senator Vest nineteen years. Of the Representatives A. M. Dockery has served eight terms and is a physician; Charles F. Cochran is a printer; Richard P. Bland, of silver dollar fame, is serving his twelfth term; Richard Bartholdt is a newspaper man.

Montana Senator Lee Mantle, of Montana, was born in England, but was brought to this country by his mother at the age of eleven, just after his father's death. He has made his own way in life, and is now an editor, and was elected Senator when forty-four. His colleague, Thomas Carter, is also self-educated. He was elected to Congress at thirty-four and chosen Senator seven years later. Representative Chas. Hartman was first elected when thirty-two.

Nebraska, etc. Senators Allen and Thurston, of Nebraska, are each just over fifty; both served in the war and afterwards became lawyers. Not one of the six Representatives is a college graduate.

Senator Chandler, of New Hampshire, who has been in public life for forty years, did not have a college education. His colleague, Senator Gallinger, was a printer and is a physician.

Senator Sewell, of New Jersey, began life as a brakeman on a gravel train, and is now vice-president of several railways. Three New Jersey Representatives are self-made men who served in the war; four had a college education.

The Baby Member The youngest man in Congress is Thomas J. Bradley, of New York, who is twenty-eight. Denis M. Hurley was a carpenter; John H. G. Vehslage started as a grocery clerk; John Murray Mitchell "has always lived in the house in which he was born;" Amos Cummings is a printer and a writer of unusual force; George B. McClellan is the son of the General of the same name; Lemuel E. Quigg got most of his education in a newspaper office; John H. Ketcham is one of the oldest members in point of service; David F. Wilber's father served eight years in Congress; Lucius N. Littauer was a member of the Harvard crew and foot ball team; James J. Belden gives much space to his ancestors; Rowland Blennerhasset Mahany, who has made a reputation though only thirty-four years old, graduated from Harvard *summa cum laude* and was elected to Congress when thirty years old. This is one for the college men.

The youngest Senator is Marion Butler, of North Carolina. He has had a remarkable career. His colleague, Jeter C. Pritchard, is only forty-one and was educated in a newspaper office. Of the Representatives, George Henry White is the only colored man in Congress. Charles H. Martin does not give his age, but his great-grandfather was Nathaniel Macon who served for fifty-seven years in Congress. He will be remembered as leader of the House of Representatives during the War of 1812.

Nine of the Ohio members are self-educated. One-half of the Pennsylvania members never went to college, and there are several inspiring examples of self-help and self-culture.

This list has been so prolonged that further mention is impossible. The study of the lives of our Congressmen is full of encouragement for those who feel themselves circumscribed for lack of opportunities. Opportunity is everywhere. To achieve any good thing, the opportunity must be seized firmly and held on to persistently. JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

SCIENCE IN THE REALM OF MYSTERY:

A STARTLING BOOK ON THE PHANTOM WORLD*

THE world, it would seem, is after all not to be wholly given up to materialism, neither is the domain of fact to be bounded only by what we can see or touch. Beyond the realm of the material, science is disposed now to admit that spirit is, in a sense, a reality, and that there lies a world about us, which, though unseen and imponderable, is as much to be taken into account as earth itself or any of the planets. It is a critical and incredulous age, but it is a probing and investigating one. In no region of study or research does there seem to be more activity or more of earnest endeavor to get at truth and stable facts than in the field of mental science and of the phenomena which, like nebulous clouds, have hitherto floated over it. Most active have been the investigations of the time into that large range of subjects which heretofore have been the scorn of the scientific mind and the fond playthings of delusion. We refer to the psycho-physical phenomena popularly known as dreams, apparitions, hallucinations, second sight, mesmerism, and mind-reading or thought transference. In this vast hypothetical domain, which has so long clung to the skirts of established science, it is surprising to find how much of it is being continually invaded by the scientific thinker, with the result that some day will no doubt bear much curious, and, it may be, precious fruit.

The Border Land of the Other World

One or two of the experiments which science is now making, it must be confessed, are rather startling and likely to give a shock some day to society. The researches into hypnotism, or mesmeric sleep, for instance, though very curious, are by no means assuring, particularly in the medico-legal bearings of the subject. To realize this, one has only to read what it is possible to do with a person in the hypnotic state, when the subject becomes, seemingly, a mere automaton and loses his intellectual and moral individuality. There may be a set-off to this in valuable therapeutical results from our knowledge of the subject; but at the first blush we seem to see a great possible addition to our criminal classes. Our fears, however, may be but the result of imperfect knowledge, and that when science has pushed its researches further, the result in this, as in other fields of inquiry, may be in part beneficial. In the meantime, there is much of mystery which baffles even the trained investigator in pursuing his inquiries into the problems of mental science. We live in a world of phantoms, and beyond the realm of the physical there is a vast borderland in which our senses find congenial play, where consciousness can hardly be said to reign, and from which the thinking part of our being brings back but a dim memory.

"Phantasms of the Living"

It is into this mysterious realm that the authors of "Phantasms of the Living" have penetrated, with the laudable aim of applying the tests of science to the mass of recorded facts in the field of physical phenomena and of seeking, if possible, to understand and explain them. The task, however it may be decided, is herculean; yet, when we consider the intent and the spirit in which the work has been undertaken, it deserves at least our respect and sympathy. The field is an enormous one into which the authors (Messrs. Gurney, Myers, and Podmore) have pursued their inquiry, and the material they have gathered in these two ponderous volumes, is particularly rich in the department of veridical or truth-telling hallucinations, and in what has scientifically been termed "telepathy," *i.e.*, "the ability of one mind to impress or to be impressed by another mind otherwise than through the recognized channels of sense."

The work, it should at once be said, is of no catch-penny, sensational order, far less is it that of cranks or dupes, or of that objectionable class of charlatans known as theosophists and spirit-medi-

*"Phantasms of the Living:" Embodying the investigations of the Society for Psychical Research into Spiritualism, Telepathy, Thought-transference, Witchcraft, belief in Haunted Houses, etc. By E. Gurney, F. W. Myers, and F. Podmore. 2 vols. 8vo, London, Trubner & Co., 1887.

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ums. On the contrary, the volumes bear the highest and most reputable character, and are published under the imprimatur and with the sanction of the English Council of the "Society of Psychical Research," an organization composed of the leading scientists and learned professional men in the Old World. The main object of the society is to attempt to investigate, in an organized, scientific way, that large group of debatable phenomena designated by such terms as mesmeric, psychical and spiritualist. The present volumes consist chiefly of a mass of well-attested facts, grouped and labelled under their appropriate heads. The bulk of the matter compiled comes under the inquiry into experimental and spontaneous telepathy —a subject, the evidence in support of which is not only large and seemingly convincing, but likely, as we have said, to lead some day to positive results.

Whatever may be our individual convictions, and with whatever indifference we may regard as mysterious inexplicable occult phenomena in the world of space that environs us, and in which the mind seems at times to be able to assert a semi-independence of the body, we must all be glad that the themes of which this work treats is now being classified and completely investigated. We may take little stock in the super-normal, and, having a sure faith in the established order of things, denounce apparitions, haunted houses, clairvoyance, mind-reading and spirit-rapping as childish bugaboos, or vulgar puerilities; but it does not follow that we are wiser than our generation, or that there is no substantial background to this life or the life beyond but that which is "the baseless fabric of a dream."

Futility of Present-day Criticism of Occult Phenomena

Criticism would have a profitless task were it to venture to deal dogmatically with the record of these "Phantasms." All that can be attempted, besides praising the solid learning and commending the manifest candor and painstaking labor of the authors, is to indicate, in so far as a brief article may, the nature of the material with which the work deals, in one of its many branches. In treating of evidence presented in support of alleged facts in the region of the super-normal, it would of course be rash to endorse the stories, either individually or collectively. It would also be rash to say, with our present knowledge, what is the scientific value of the evidence in support of a theory that "veridical phantasms" are caused by thought-transference, or in confirmation or in rebuttal of belief in psychical phenomena, of which science as yet knows little. All that meantime can be urged is to ask thoughtful and candid men to keep their minds honestly open to new light in the dark, in the conviction that thus we may advance to truth, and help those, it may be, who are to come after us to attain to a more expanded and interesting life and to see more clearly the end and purpose of things.

In working in their novel field, it is only fair to the authors to say that they disavow any intention to reverse, in any paradoxical fashion, established scientific conclusions. Their aim rather is to continue in the main track of discovery, and to assail a problem "which, though strange and hard," they conceive, "to stand next in order among the new adventures on which science must needs set forth, if her methods and her temper are to guide and control the widening curiosity, the expanding capacities, of men." In the interesting region of "telepathy," while they have not solved all the problems, the authors of this work hold that they "have proved by direct experiment, corroborated by the narratives, the possibility of communications between two minds, inexplicable by any recognized physical laws, but capable (under certain rare spontaneous conditions) of taking place when the persons concerned are at an indefinite distance from each other. And we claim further," say the authors, "that by investigation of the higher phenomena of mesmerism, and the automatic action of the mind, to have confirmed and expanded this view in various directions, and attained a standing point from which certain even stranger alleged phenomena begin to assume an intelligible aspect, and to suggest further discoveries to come."

The import to the practical mind of all this may not be much, for it is doubtful whether telepathy will ever be explained on purely physical grounds; yet something must result if it establishes as a verity the fact of telepathic communi-

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cation between mind and mind, and takes the subject and its cognate branches out of the sphere of empiricism. What effect further investigation may have on the race, in throwing light (if we may speak of this) on the spiritual relations of man with a higher power, is not prematurely to be considered by any reverent mind; yet these investigations will accomplish something if they make clear the fact that matter is not everything, and that there is a sphere in which spirit operates through sensory and conscious mental avenues. On this matter, we are as yet only on the threshold of scientific investigation, therefore, no one can as yet dogmatize on the subject; equally, however, no one can afford contemptuously to waive it aside or esteem it an idle and mischievous inquiry.

In saying this, the present writer is not minded to be a votary of telepathy or of the physical phenomena of spiritualism, for he cannot readily divest himself of a life-long prejudice against such studies, which have too often duped weak intellects and been the vulgar instruments of imposture and fraud. Nor is he unaware that since the volumes he is reviewing were published, one of the writers, Mr. Podmore, has issued a work ("Studies in Psychical Research") which appears materially to qualify the results of his previous investigations in connection with psychic matters. Formerly, he seemed to affirm that telepathy furnished the master-key to all mysteries, though now he appears to think that "ether and the nervous system may be at the bottom of them." On the other hand, Prof. Wm. Crookes, the scientist, and English writers such as Mr. Andrew Lang, with numerous French *savans*, steadily pursue their investigations into psychic phenomena, and would seem to be convinced that, as the phrase is, "there is something in them." With regard to telepathy, they appear to hold, however the matter is to be explained, that it is possible to transmit the thoughts or feelings of one person to another, at a great or a relatively small distance apart, and that without any apparent instrument or medium of communication between them.

We conclude our notice of these curious and suggestive volumes with the quotation of a few condensed instances, taken at random from the recorded examples of spontaneous telepathy where the percipient's impressions are sensory and externalized, that is, where the person seems to see, hear or feel that some communication has been made to him, and to instinctively conclude that the communication has come from the outer world. In making these extracts, from the volumes before us, the exigencies of our space necessitate the omission of all details and the corroboratory testimonv which accompanies each case.

A Startling Occurrence During the Crimean War, a captain in the army had a younger brother serving in the 7th Royal Fusiliers before Sebastopol, to whom he was much attached. One night he suddenly awoke in bed and saw the figure of his brother kneeling in the room, looking anxiously and lovingly at him through a light sort of phosphorescent mist. He noticed with horror a wound on the right temple of the head of the recumbent figure, from which a red stream flowed. "The face was of a waxy hue, but transparent looking, and so was the reddish mark." The narrator got up, went into the next room, called the members of his family and told them what he had seen. On the Monday following, news was received of the storming of the Redan, and a fortnight later a friend brought the intelligence of the brother's death, he having been killed in the attack. The narrator adds, that "both the Colonel of the Regiment and one or two officers who saw the body confirmed the fact that the appearance was much according to my description, and the death wound was exactly where I had seen it." The precise time of the poor officer's death is uncertain, for the body was not found for thirty-six hours afterward. The brother's presentiment of what had happened, was, however, on the night of the day on which the Redan was stormed.

An Instance of Telepathy Another case, this time illustrating the transference of pain, is that of the wife of a well-known landscape painter, who awoke in bed with a start one morning, feeling that she had had a severe blow on her mouth, with a distinct sense that her upper lip was bleeding. She applied her handkerchief to what seemed the injured part, but there was no blood, nor, on looking in her glass, was there any swelling. She took note of the hour (seven o'clock),

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went to bed again, and treated the matter as only a dream. Some little time afterward her husband, who had been out in a sail-boat all the morning, returned, and the wife noticed that he rather purposely sat farther away from her than was usual, and every now and then put his handkerchief furtively up to his lip, in the way she had herself done earlier in the morning. Asking for an explanation, she was told that, "when I was sailing, a sudden squall came up, throwing the tiller suddenly around, and it struck me a sharp blow in the mouth under the upper lip, and it has been bleeding a good deal and won't stop." The hour, the husband said, must have been about seven. His wife adds that "I then told him what had happened to me, much to his surprise, and to all who were with us at breakfast."

The next instance appears trivial enough (except perhaps to the baby who fell out of bed) and of little force, the authors add, "if it were a single experience; yet it will be seen that the impression was precise in character, was at once written down, and proved to be completely correct." The narrator is a gentleman whose wife was absent at the seaside with their little child, thirteen months old, who was in poor health. Suddenly, about eleven A. M. on a specified day, the husband felt a strong impression that the little child was worse and that he had fallen out of the bed upon chairs and then rolled on to the floor. He at once wrote to his wife, adding in a postscript, so as not to convey the notion that he thought his wife careless, "Mind little Gaston does not fall out of bed! Put chairs in front of it. You know accidents soon happen." He then goes on to relate that he heard no more of the matter, and imagined that his impression was merely the result of over-anxiety. At the end of the week, however, he went to see his wife and child, and asked the former whether she had noted his advice to protect the baby against accident. She smiled at first, the story goes, "and then informed her husband that the child had tumbled out of bed upon the chairs placed at the side, and then found his way to the floor without being hurt." She further remarked, "you must have been thinking of that when it was just too late, because it happened the same day your letter came, some hours previously." "I asked her," the husband relates, "what time of the day it happened, and the answer was, 'about eleven o'clock.'"

The next case illustrates the class of dreams.

The Class of Dreams

The narrator is an English gentleman, who was resident at the time in France. On a specified night (25th of March, 1880), after reading till late, he retired to bed. He dreamed that he saw distinctly the figure of his brother sitting on a chair before him, and that on speaking to him he simply bent his head in reply, then rose and left the room. He awoke, and so strong was the impression as to the reality of the brother's presence, and so vivid was the whole scene, that he got up, examined the chair and the room and returned to bed, but his mind was too excited and painfully disturbed for him to sleep. "My sense," he writes, "of impending evil was so strong that I at once made a note in my memorandum book of the appearance, and added the words: 'God forbid!'" Three days, afterward, it is related, news reached him that his brother, who had been in good health and was a perfect horseman, had died from the effects of terrible injuries received in a fall while hunting with the B——— hounds. The date of his death was the evening of the 25th of March, 1880.

Not less startling is the next instance, of a farmer residing at Redhill, England, who recites the following: "About two o'clock on the morning of October 21, 1881, while I was perfectly wide awake and looking at a lamp burning on my washstand, a person, as I thought, came into my room by mistake, and stopped, peering into the looking-glass on the table. It soon occurred to me that the face was that of Robinson Kelsey, a man I knew well and who had a habit of wearing his hair long behind. When I raised myself up in bed and called out, the figure instantly disappeared. The next day I mentioned to some of my friends how strange it was. So thoroughly impressed was I of what I had seen that I searched the local papers that day (Saturday) and the following Monday and Tuesday, believing his death would be in one of them. On the following Wednesday a

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man, who formerly was my drover, came and told me that Robinson Kelsey was dead. Anxious to know at what time he died, I wrote to the family undertaker at L— who learned, from the brother-in-law of the deceased, that he died at 2 A. M. The morning was that on which the farmer had his dream, the story, it is added, has abundant confirmation.

The Class of Apparitions

Another, though less lugubrious case, is that of a young lady whose brother was in Australia and had not written home for a long while. The mother of both was very uneasy. The daughter, one day, while writing a German exercise, jumped up and called assuringly to her mother, "There is Tom come back already, I saw him this moment from the window!" "Where?" said the mother and sister, each crying out, "I don't see him." "He is there," was the reply, "he has gone to the front door," and all rushed off to admit him. There was no brother, however, there, though he was sought everywhere about the garden. The daughter, who had seen the figure from the window, imagined that her brother was hiding in the shrubbery, and she called to him, "come, Tom, come in, do not play the fool or you will kill dear mother." No one answered, it is related, and the mother thought the son dead, though the others of the family did not share her apprehensions, yet looked upon the affair as a mystery. A year afterwards, the story goes, the son returned home, and when recounting his troubles he told them that he had been very ill, and that while delirious he had constantly requested his comrades to lay him under the great cedar tree on his father's lawn, and turning to his father he said, "Yes, father, and, do you know, I seemed to see the dear old place as plain as I do now." "When was that?" inquired the father. He gave the date, and the mother, who had written it down, looked and said, "Why, that was the very time when your sister declared that she saw you on the lawn." "Yes," rejoined the father, "and your mother at once killed you," and there was a good laugh at the expense of the narrator.

The explanation which rationalism would no doubt give of all this would be to call the stories hoaxes, fictions or delusions. The less cocksure reader, however, will not be satisfied with such off-hand methods; nor will he see in them the results merely of a disordered brain or an imperfect digestion. Our own view of the matter is too perplexing to the writer to be of value on either side. Even were this not the case, we are not rash enough, with our present knowledge of the subject, to inflict it on the reader. Perhaps the safest ground would be that of mental reservation, until science can shed more light on the problem. At present it looks as if the authors of these "Phantasms" had a clue and were at least on the way to render pathology some service, even if they fail in enlarging the boundaries of finite vision.

G. MERCER ADAM.

STUDIES IN LITERATURE:

MRS. M. O. W. OLIPHANT AS A NOVELIST

IN confining our attention to the fiction that has come from Mrs. Oliphant's pen,* we are very far from meaning to disparage the vast body of work which she produced in other departments of literature. Few are so richly endowed as she was with the enviable faculty of assimilating historical or other information and imparting it to the public in an agreeable manner. Still fewer have so thoroughly learned the secret of the biographer's art. Her life of Edward Irving — to name but one of her performances in this kind — is little less than a masterpiece. Copious, yet not diffuse; bristling with detail, yet coherent and orderly; fed from innumerable sources through countless channels of information, yet consistent and well-di-

* "Passages in the Life of Mrs. Margaret Maitland of Sunnyside." Henry Colburn, London, 1849. "Chronicles of Carlingford: Salem Chapel," and other works. William Blackwood & Sons, Publishers, Edinburgh and London, 1863. A critique condensed from "Blackwood's Magazine."

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gested — it is not unworthy to be ranked with Lockhart's Life of Burns or Southey's of Wesley. Neither are the readers of "Blackwood's Magazine" likely soon to forget the ripe and sagacious criticism, often brilliant, ever shrewd and ever kindly, which she contributed to its pages over a tract of many years. Yet we believe that in fiction Mrs. Oliphant's genius found its truest and most adequate expression, and that the qualities which characterize her historical, biographical, and critical writings are there displayed in even greater intensity.

No one, we take it, familiar with the long series of her novels could doubt that their author held firm and well-fixed views on many subjects. That the whole bent of her opinion was Conservative is manifest enough, and her code of ethics was as old-fashioned as the Ten Commandments. She was too wise to believe in panaceas for the distemper of mankind, or to suppose that human nature could be revolutionized by the invention of a taking formula or the turning of a felicitous phrase. Towards the opening of her literary career the world was engaged in schemes for regenerating the masses; and she laughed good-humoredly in her earlier notable novel, "Margaret Maitland," at lectures, popular education, and all such early-Victorian prescriptions for hastening the millennium. Towards its close the world was agitated by projects which, professing to aim at the salvation of "the social organism," to borrow a cant phrase, were, in reality, subversive of civilized society altogether. If the reader of her novels fails to find a vigorous and sustained polemic on behalf of those institutions on which the very existence of the community depends, he must remember that since the time of the *Anti-Jacobin* considerations of taste, decency, and good sense, if not of principle, have forbidden violent attacks upon the family, or the open proclamation of the gospel of free love.

Mere theories of life, of course, and mere opinions on ethics or theology, however tenaciously held, are poor stuff in themselves to make a novel out of, as several notorious examples in recent years have taught us. From one point of view they may be thought an actual disqualification for the business of an imaginative writer, as tending to contract the range of the sympathies and to check the flow of the more generous emotions. It may even be contended — though we think the contention unfounded — that Mrs. Oliphant's cast of thought is specially apt to be mischievous in this respect. However the fact may be in other cases, no such result assuredly is apparent in her work. On the contrary, she invariably shows herself keenly susceptible of new impressions, and acutely sensitive to ideas "in the air." One aspect of this sensibility is revealed in the adroitness with which she would pick up some vexed question, or some craze of the hour, and interweave it with the novel she happened to be writing at the time. Just as she availed herself of an extraordinary group of religious phenomena occurring in the west of Scotland, and made it serve as the basis of "The Minister's Wife," so, when people were chattering in magazines about "euthanasia," she seized upon the problem and presented it in concrete form with extraordinary force and poignancy in the earlier part of "Carità;" and so, later on, the "Crofter question" was made to play its part in "The Wizard's Son."

Perhaps the most curious illustration of this readiness in making use of some passing fashion or mode of thought is supplied by "Kirsteen," which was written just about the time when fine ladies took to keeping milliners' shops. Borrowing the hint, Mrs. Oliphant made her heroine turn "mantua-maker," but with some temerity threw the date of the story sixty or seventy years back, with a result by no means unpleasing, if artistically rather unsatisfactory. The truth is that some risk is involved in the exercise of a gift more suited to the journalist than to the writer of fiction; and to be "up-to-date," which is essentially the function of the former, means too often for the latter to be behind the times in the reckoning of posterity.

But Mrs. Oliphant displayed this sympathetic and sensitive quality in a much more important and legitimate manner, by showing her ability to enter into and to understand views of life and conduct towards which in the abstract she can have felt nothing but antipathy. She neither distorts nor exaggerates them, but rather puts the best possible face on them, and brings into prominence the element of reason or justice which may,

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perhaps, lie hidden under a mountain of discontent that resembles "contrariness," and complaint that sounds no more rational than the grumbling of a spoilt child. No one, we should suppose, had more scorn than she for the "New Woman" movement, or for the attempt that has been made to overthrow the accepted laws which regulate the relations between the sexes, and to substitute for them, not even the least elevated of ideals, but the actual working standard of a portion of the male sex. Yet we doubt if the root-idea of the feminine revolt has ever been more clearly and temperately set forth than in the following passage from "The Wizard's Son:"—

All women are not born self-denying. When they are young the blood runs as warmly in their veins as in that of men; they, too, want life, movement, sunshine, and happiness. The mere daylight, the air, a new frock, however hardly obtained, a dance, a little admiration, suffice for them when they are very young; but when the next chapter comes and the girl learns to calculate that, saving some great matrimonial chance, there is no prospect for her but the narrowest and most meagre and monotonous existence under heaven, the life of a poor, very poor single woman who cannot dig, and to beg is ashamed — is it to be wondered at that she makes a desperate struggle anyhow (and alas! there is but one *how*) to escape. Perhaps she likes, too, poor creature, the little excitement of flirtation, the only thing which replaces to her the manifold excitement which men of her kind indulge in — the tumultuous joys of the turf, the charms of the play, the delights of the club, the moors and sport in general, not to speak of all those developments of pleasure, so-called, which are impossible to women. She cannot dabble a little in vice as a man can do, and yet return again and be no worse thought of than before. Both for amusement and profit she has this one way, which, to be sure, answers the purpose of all the others, of being destructive of the best part in her, spoiling her character and injuring her reputation — but for how much less a cause, and with how little recompense in the way of enjoyment! The husband-hunting girl is fair game to whosoever has a stone to throw, and very few are so charitable as to say, "Poor soul!"

Again, it is remarkable how much of Mrs. Oliphant's interest seems to centre in certain of her female characters, who, in real life, would by no means deserve unqualified approbation. If some of her heroines are mild and savorless, she is not the first great novelist against whom such a charge has been brought. But the study of a woman not, of course, vicious in the technical sense, but inspired by no very lofty aims, not succumbing to her "environment," but getting the better of it, rising superior to every fresh difficulty, doggedly pursuing the ends she has set before herself, and employing in that pursuit the panoply of cunning and intrigue with which her sex is supposed to be endowed, seems to have attracted her irresistibly, and to have evoked her powers to their fullest extent.

Julia Herbert in "The Wizard's Son" (*apropos* of whom the passage we have just quoted was written), though her portrait can scarcely be called a full-length, is sketched with wonderful directness, fidelity, and animation. Phœbe Beecham, in a last belated "Chronicle of Carlingford," is no less admirable, and her final triumph over old Mr. Copperhead, whose son she has determined to marry, must be hailed with acclamation by every kind-hearted reader. Best and greatest of all is Lucilla, the heroine of "Miss Marjoribanks," which is perhaps Mrs. Oliphant's most signal success as a piece of analysis and character-drawing. Besides its workmanship the cobwebs spun by the subtlest of other novelists seem composed of the coarsest packthread. Yet amidst the intricate tangle of motives and feelings, so delicate and slight that a heavier or less steady hand would have made sad work of them, there still beats a woman's heart; and to find a revelation of feminine character to match this one we must turn to Jane Austen's "Emma" or to George Eliot's "The Mill on the Floss."

Into some descriptions of character, it is true, Mrs. Oliphant seems to have been unable to enter, or at all events she was unable to reproduce them with distinctness and effect. What we may call the "actress" or "adventuress" type of woman, for example (a specimen of which may be found in "A Poor Gentleman"), had doubtless not come within her own immediate observation; and her attempt to depict it suggests many reminiscences of other people's novels. Adventuresses after all are kittle cattle, and few are the writers who have successfully dealt with them. Similarly Mrs. Oliphant's heart seems to fail her in the portrayal of villains. Jack Wentworth and the Miss Wodehouses' brother in "The Perpetual Curate" are not the real thing, and the raffish Underwood in "The Wizard's Son" does not abound in vitality. For precisely the opposite reason she is equally unsuccessful with

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her millionaires and parvenus, who are painted in the most repulsive colors.

Even if this enumeration does not exhaust Mrs. Oliphant's failures, and we do not pretend that it does, the successes remain in a vast majority. There is that rabid evangelical Mrs. Kirkman in "Madonna Mary," worthy to hobnob with old Lady Southdown; and there is Winnie Percival, spoilt and *incomprise*, in the same book. There is Miss Charity Beresford, that pungent old lady in "Carità;" and there is the old maid of the helpless, weeping, and generally "fusionless" variety, exemplified by her niece Miss Cherry, or by Agatha Seton in "Madonna Mary." There are Miss Dora, Miss Leonora, and Miss Cecilia Wentworth, the aunts of the Perpetual Curate, whose place is with Jacky, Nicky, and Grizzy Douglas; and there is Mrs. Fred Rider in that short but telling sketch, "The Doctor's Family"— the foolish and incapable wife of a selfish ne'er-do-weel, and almost the only female personage in her works towards whom the author's attitude is one of unqualified disapproval. Among men, there is Kirsteen's father, Douglas of Drumcarro, old West Indian slave-driver and West Highland laird; there is Lord Lindores (a portrait which strikes us as particularly true to nature), whose easy-going amiability is transformed into inexorable worldliness by unexpected accession to a title and a landed estate; there is his son, Rintoul, "rampant" in his ingenuous wordly wisdom, and as firmly set himself upon marrying a penniless beauty as he is upon his sister marrying riches and position; there is the father of the "Rose in June," Mr. Damerel, the embodiment of refined epicureanism and self-indulgence; and there is Dr. Marjoribanks, the hard-headed parent of the incomparable Lucilla.

Our list has been compiled, so to say, at random; it contains no character of more than secondary importance; and we have left the rich treasures of the Scottish stories and of the Carlingford series practically undrawn upon. Yet, such as it is, it may satisfy the most sceptical of the wide extent and diversified nature of Mrs. Oliphant's domain. Her talent was *borné* only if it be *borné* for an author to keep his head, to refuse either to clamor for the burning down of ninety-nine persons' houses in order that the hundredth may have a meal of roast-pig, or to join in the shrill and importunate pleading of the socially mutilated fox in favor of tails being generally dispensed with.

The most conclusive proof, however, of Mrs. Oliphant's keen susceptibility to impressions is the remarkable vividness with which she could convey them. There is no more prominent feature in her art than the combined precision and delicacy with which the physical and social surroundings of her characters are indicated. Her novels are rich in "atmosphere;" the setting of the gem is a subject of anxious care; the background of the picture is not left to take care of itself; nor are the *dramatis personæ* permitted to wander about seeking for a lost *milieu*, or a *monde* which once was theirs. Even the weakest of her books begins well. There is no beating about the bush. Miss Austen herself scarcely enjoyed more fully the gift of putting the reader *au fait* of the situation, or of mapping out in a few bold and sweeping strokes a serviceable *carte du pays*. The pity is that, in Mrs. Oliphant's case, her hand often seems to tire so soon, and that as the work proceeds the lines become somewhat vague and blurred. To us, in truth, it seems the merest paradox to pretend that she would not have written better had she written less. But take her at her best, and dissatisfaction vanishes.

What an acute perception Mrs. Oliphant had of the little matters that make all the difference between comfort and discomfort in externals! Again and again she reverts to the *res angusta domi*,* contrasting it with the results of opulence; and the large family living on narrow means is one of her favorite topics. It is the afternoon of a dull and soaking autumn day; the mother is worrying over her accounts in a vain endeavor to make two and two amount to five, or to three, as the case may be; the distracted father has perhaps slipped off to his "library" to write a sermon; the small and barely furnished sitting-room is full of children, the younger ones with jammy fingers and dirty pinafores, the older attempting to keep order, and wrangling among themselves. It needs but the entrance of an untidy maid-servant with an ill-trimmed and

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* Straitened circumstances at home. — ED.

evil-smelling paraffin-lamp to give the finishing touch to a pathetic study of squalor and discomfort. What reader of Mrs. Oliphant but can call to mind more than one such picture?

In none of her stories is the effect of "atmosphere" more triumphantly attained than in those where the scene is situated in Scotland; for Mrs. Oliphant knew her native country, and she knew its people. And if we may discriminate where all is excellence, she seems to reach her very highest level when she sets foot in the Kingdom of Fife. "Katie Stewart," one of her most beautiful productions, and the first of a long series of stories to adorn the pages of "Maga;" "John Rintoul," a simple yet affecting tale of life in a fishing village, and the "Romance of Ladybank," a slight but singularly graceful sketch — are all very different in kind from one another. Yet they have this in common, that each of them transplanted from the soil of Fife would forfeit the greater part of its peculiar charm and virtue.

It is in delineating the ordinary domestic relations and in recording the emotions to which they give rise that Mrs. Oliphant excels any novelist of her generation. The particular relation which seems to have interested her most was not the conjugal, though that was frequently her theme, and Dr. and Mrs. Morgan, for example, in "The Perpetual Curate," are a couple whom Balzac need not have been ashamed to call his own. The relationship on which she dwells with most insistence, and to which she constantly reverts, is that of parent and child. This proposition scarcely stands in need of illustration.

Mrs. Oliphant seems somewhat to have distrusted her own power of doing anything like justice to scenes and circumstances which had not come within the range of her own direct observation and experience. But what, it may be asked, of the region which Mrs. Oliphant made peculiarly her own — the region believed by most people to be wholly beyond the scope of the senses, the region of the "unseen," of the supernatural? Mrs. Oliphant manifestly had a strong predilection for topics transcending the limits of ordinary human experience, and we believe that in yielding to it she at once gratified the taste and stimulated the interest of an immense section of the public. We should rather conjecture, indeed, that she shared the illogical though widespread opinion that every well-attested case of a ghostly apparition is, somehow or other, an additional testimony to the truth of revealed religion. Whether such a belief contributes to the effective telling of a ghost story may, however, very well be doubted; and Mrs. Oliphant's ghost stories, though workmanlike and dexterous (for she never relapsed into the amateurish), are neither very favorable specimens of her powers nor comparable to the efforts of others who were perhaps less inclined to believe than she. She is even more disappointing when she employs the supernatural in a long story. The mysterious stranger in "The Wizard's Son" is excellent up to a certain point; but how is a being to be held in awe whose very existence (as we are told) comes to be doubted by the persons whose lives he has powerfully influenced? A spectre who is merely the means of conveying moral lessons, and who once incurs the suspicion of representing nothing more imposing than some great moral or immoral principle, has lost his true occupation.

In "A Little Pilgrim" Mrs. Oliphant of course approaches the unseen on a much more serious and solemn side — a side on which no thinking man would willingly cast ridicule or contempt. We trust we are fully conscious of the simple and unaffected pathos, and of the deep and heartfelt reverence, with which the subject of the next world is treated; and we are sure that the pages of that little volume have carried consolation and refreshment to many a sorrowful and penitent heart. If the thing must be done, it could by no possibility be done better. Yet is not *tu ne quæsieris** a safe maxim in all such matters? The speculations of the great pagan poet as to the future state, couched in the noblest diction, and abounding in the most memorable and affecting passages, may be read and reread without any feeling of incongruity. But for the Christian (so it seems to us), the wiser course is to remain satisfied with such hints as revelation affords, and to refrain from attempting to penetrate a secret which the Supreme Lawgiver has involved in mystery. An indescribable sense of futility seems to be

* Forbear to inquire. — ED.

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left behind by those excursions into the supernatural.

These, then, are two of the main qualities that mark Mrs. Oliphant's writings — the sympathetic and masterly delineation of character, and the vivid presentation both of external scenes and of the circumstances in which the action of her personages takes place. When these excellences co-exist — which they by no means always do — little room is left for plot; nor was plot one of Mrs. Oliphant's strong points. Not that she dealt in wild improbabilities, or inconceivable complications, or impossible disentanglements. Tact she never failed in. We can picture to ourselves how a writer of coarser fibre and more vulgar instincts would have revelled in marrying Mr. Vincent to Lady Western, or how one of a more sarcastic and fiery temperament would have made him abandon in disgust the errors of dissent and embrace "those of" the Church. Mrs. Oliphant knew better than either. Thus she kept well within the bounds of good sense and accuracy, and paid her readers the compliment of assuming that their intelligence was at least not below the average.

In reading Mrs. Oliphant's novels one does not stop to think of the fable. One may sometimes look back and admire the ingenuity which brings about unexpected combinations of the pieces on the board, as in "Phœbe, Junior," where the least likely thing in the world would seem to be the close friendship of Tozer's granddaughter, and Mr. Northcote, the dissenting firebrand, with the family of so excellent a churchman as Mr. May. But in nine cases out of ten the question one asks is not, What will the next conjuncture be? but, Given a certain conjuncture, how will the various characters comport themselves? When melodrama is introduced it is ineffective: the mysterious Mrs. Hilyard is the one blot on "Salem Chapel." Probably Mrs. Oliphant's most successful attempt in the tragic vein is "The Minister's Wife:" an impressive and powerful story for all its inordinate length. But, after all, what lingers in the memory is not the hero, or the heroine, or the villain, but the talk at John MacWhirter's smiddy, or the dialogue between the minister and Galbraith when the "materials have been brought in, and the toddy brewed."

The crowning grace of the novelist of manners is a gift of humorous observation, and it is one of which the Fates have been lavish to women. Miss Edgeworth (in her children's books), Miss Austen, Miss Ferrier, Miss Catherine Sinclair, and George Eliot — writers of very different degrees of merit — displayed it in rich measure. Even Miss Brontë had a little; and many a woman of comparatively mediocre abilities has written delightful novels merely by giving it full play. Mrs. Oliphant, as every reader knows, possessed it in abundance, and it brightens all her novels. Throughout her works many are the samples of a humor, spontaneous, refreshing, and free from any tincture of malice.

Differences of opinion must necessarily exist as to which of Mrs. Oliphant's novels is the best, and we should not be disposed to quarrel with any one who awarded the palm to "Margaret Maitland." Modelled obviously upon Galt, it is a work of extraordinary finish and maturity for a young girl to have produced. The very idiom in which it is written is peculiarly attractive, and harmonizes perfectly with the subject and scope of the tale. No genuine Scot can surely fail to be grateful to Mrs. Oliphant for her pictures of his compatriots. What Scottish servant in the fiction of the last seventy years has not owed much to Andrew Fairservice and more to Caleb Balderston? All of Mrs. Oliphant's Scots characters come fresh from the mint, and bear the stamp of nature. If the present generation believes all it is told, it must be at a loss to form any consistent conception of the Caledonian of the humbler classes. According to one set of informants, he is a drivelling sentimentalist with a sob ever ready to be merged in an ostentatious cough on the shortest notice. According to another, his normal and habitual standard of thought, speech, and conduct is that of a hind returning from a hiring market. Mrs. Oliphant falls in with neither faction; but perhaps her pages convey a notion of her fellow-countrymen somewhat nearer the truth. John Galt and Sir Walter Scott, at least, seem to be on her side, which ought to count for something. Those, too, who are ecclesiastically minded may note that the feelings of the better sort of Non-Intrusionists at the time of the Disruption — the old High-Church

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sentiments which their descendants have bartered for the barren formulæ of English dissent—are portrayed in "Margaret Maitland" with a power quite beyond the reach of the most eloquent of high-flying tub-thumpers.

With all respect and admiration for "Margaret Maitland," however, our own view is that Mrs. Oliphant reached the zenith of her art in the Carlingford series. What judicious selection of material! What dexterity of handling! What lightness of touch! It was a happy thought to group the characters round Church and Chapel, and it would be hard to say of which division the idiosyncrasies are most happily touched off. Perhaps, if anything, the dissenters are superior in execution. Or is it only that they are a little more amusing, and afford a more promising subject for humor to play about? Comparison with Trollope is, of course, irresistibly suggested; and we are not prepared to say that in "Barchester Towers" he did not reach as high a level as Mrs. Oliphant. The vast mass of his work, however, seems to us to be inferior in quality to hers; and he was at all times apt to fall into a hastiness of construction, and a provoking slovenliness of diction, to which at her busiest she was a stranger.

The future social historian, at all events, will find much matter in the "Chronicles of Carlingford"—will find, indeed, the most apt and trustworthy of commentaries on Mr. Matthew Arnold's favorite texts. It is needless to run over the familiar characters who fit so admirably into the picture as a whole. But we must own to an exceptional regard and liking for Mr. Tozer. The scene at the meeting in the chapel where he takes up the cudgels for Mr. Vincent is one not easily forgotten. We have already indicated the opinion that "Miss Marjoribanks" is unrivalled as a study of female character. "Salem Chapel" has perhaps more bloom and freshness, yet we know of no substantial ground on which either should be preferred to "The Perpetual Curate." We decline, accordingly, to draw invidious distinctions, and beg leave to bracket the three at the very top of the first class.

A great deal is heard nowadays of the "profession" of literature, and a singular enough profession it must be, to judge by the utterances of its self-constituted spokesmen. To blow your own trumpet; to brag about your income; to make popular applause the sole and final test of literary merit; and to whimper because you have no handle to your name,—that is the sum and substance of "professional" conduct—new style. One essential item we had inadvertently omitted: to abuse publishers in the most insolent and vindictive language. If there be any who are disgusted with the endless round of self-advertisement and vanity, and who hate to see an honorable calling degraded by its professing champions, let them turn aside and contemplate the career of Mrs. Oliphant. They will there find an illustration of how distinction and success may be won without the aid of any of those miserable arts, the practice of which, though infallibly disastrous to the finest graces of character, appears to be the rule rather than the exception. The results achieved by her genius—some of which we have endeavored to point out—are not within the reach of all. The gifts of humor, sympathy, tolerance, penetration, good sense, and felicitous expression, cannot wholly be commanded by human effort. But he who enters upon a literary life with Mrs. Oliphant for a model may rest assured that at its termination self-respect and independence will remain unimpaired, and that he can leave behind him the legacy of an untarnished name.

DISCRIMINATING CRITICISM

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER very justly declares that "What writing or literary production needs in this country now, more than in any other, is criticism—cool, discriminating, relentless criticism. What every writer needs is to be brought to judgment in the high literary tribunal." Perhaps this is simply another way of saying that literary work in America has reached a point when it must be taken seriously by both writers and readers, if it is to bring forth such an amount of worthy and permanent results as to be entitled to the name of a national literature.

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We have been a hundred years experimenting and have produced literature which promises to be lasting and of which we may well be proud. As a nation we have encouraged literary effort to an extent sufficient to make such work an honorable and a lucrative profession. These are the achievements that precede the development of literary criticism, of a high and dignified character, in any country. We seem, therefore, ready for the censor, the trained critic, whose standard will compel a knowledge and observance of the rules of art; that will to a great extent fix the rank of minor writers at least; and will elevate literary taste and create an atmosphere favorable to artistic literature.

People with literary instincts, whether for the creation of literature or merely for its appreciation and enjoyment, have been striving blindly, scarcely knowing whether in a right or wrong direction, to blaze a path that might ultimately become a broad highway justly called American Literature. They may have been blinded, as has often been suggested, by a glittering will-o'-the-wisp idea that certain crudities and oddities in our literature are its truest marks of nationality. Hence the prominence given to dialect and to other departures from good English and good style, as manifested in the work of Walt Whitman and lesser men, and the too widespread belief that these are peculiarly national features in American letters.

It may be that the crudities and oddities in the work of certain of our writers are in some sense elements of nationality. Literature in every clime is an interpretation of life, and American books which truly and specifically represent American life may be properly styled American literature, that is if they are literature.

The literary development of our republic has differed from that of all other countries. An English-speaking people with a literary inheritance and a comprehension of the meaning of literature, we seemed to possess all that was fundamental for immediate and direct progress on specific national lines. But certain things of vital importance modified these apparent advantages. Without going into a dissertation upon the nationality of literary production in America two or three pertinent facts may be noted. Early emigrants to these shores, educated though some of them were, could not transport the literary atmosphere of England to the new, unbroken country of their adoption. If they could have done so it would soon have changed by reason of the absorbing material interests and the hardships which, without exception, were the lot of our early colonies. There was nothing to counteract the adverse pressure of constant toil, deprivation of comforts and real suffering, except religion and religious teaching. Apart from religion, and that of a narrow, austere cast, there was nothing in the lives of these pioneers that could be strictly termed intellectual. Yet while their piety gave a good and noble coloring to the beginnings of American scholarship and to our early literature, its influence was necessarily one-sided, because of the prevalence of the sectarian, even essentially Puritan, spirit. Again, the life to be embodied in the literature, though at that time provincial rather than in any true sense national, differed in almost every respect from anything known before. It followed that, in adjustment to environment and special conditions, American literature went through an experience as largely original and individual as that of every other literature.

The literary advantages with which the Pilgrim Fathers started were an almost universal knowledge of reading and writing, and, to some extent, of books. But when it is remembered that education was then extremely meagre, and in no place wide-spread, and that the few truly learned men who came to America were separated from other learned men and from an atmosphere of learning by a broad ocean seldom traversed, it will not seem surprising that even the most mechanical parts of their literary efforts were crude and stumbling.

Surely we are justified, by these facts, in judging American literature from pretty much the same stand-point that we would take for judgment of other national literatures. The advantages referred to had an important effect, however, in that they led to a better and more rapid development of our literature. Now, in much less time than the same status was reached by other literatures, American literature is ready to resign its boastfulness and self-consciousness, and, in order to satisfy an aroused artistic sense in the people, to subject itself to the ordeal of sound criticism by trained critics.

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Through lack of a popular demand, literary criticism in our country, hitherto, has failed to receive the encouragement given to other kinds of writing. In consequence no publisher has been justified in establishing a review or periodical similar to the English publications devoted mainly to essays in criticism. Writers who prefer such work find space for it occasionally in our magazines and high-class journals; and the publications issued weekly or monthly to provide general literary intelligence and to keep their readers informed of new books often include careful book-reviews exhaustive enough to claim the name of literary criticism. The Saturday and Sunday editions of our best newspapers also sometimes give a hearing to the literary critic. Yet it will not be straying far from the truth to say that there is no periodical in America where a writer can be assured of a welcome for a thoughtful, scholarly article treating of a purely literary matter in a philosophic, analytic, and discriminating manner. When the demand for such writing becomes sufficiently strong to give life to an American literary review, and not till then, we may look for a literary standard that will lead to literature, worthy to be so called, which we may be proud to entitle national.

The best creative writers will greet the era of conscientious, capable criticism. It is said that at present the market for American fiction is overstocked. Yet the quality of much that is produced, bringing the authors lucre if not renown, continues a standing sad commentary upon popular taste. A literary standard is needed as much for publishers as for writers and their readers. Many read poor fiction because it thrusts itself upon their notice when better seems not easily accessible. The bad thus, in a sense, crowds out the good. The test of criticism would go far to prevent this. Moreover, while a willing submission to such a test would not be a proof of a calling to literature, an objection to it might be regarded as an infallible sign of unworthiness. Genius, which makes a road for itself, stumbles over many a stone of ignorance that might have been avoided had it been pointed out beforehand by the finger-post of critical knowledge. Talent can never reach a high place without such guidance. Nor will the study of literary models or literary rules serve the purpose fully. Every writer learns early in his career that his sorest need is individual criticism.

The trouble now, as always, springs from a general misunderstanding of the words "discriminating criticism." The careless and the unscholarly and sometimes those capable of better judgment are apt to accept a pungent book-notice, favorable or unfavorable, as a meritorious critical production. Yet everyone who gives thought to the subject knows that fault-finding and eulogy are easy and superficial methods of dealing with books. To see defects and point them out is, on the whole, suited to a lower capacity and tendency than to discover palpable merits and emphasize them. Hence the wielding of a trenchant pen upon the literary pages of many second and third rate journals has much to do with the predominant idea of criticism and the odium attached to the name of critic.

Discriminating criticism offers a reason for its every statement. It requires the hand of a scholar, a man of wide reading, of broad and deep sympathies, and of special information, not only upon that which engages his attention at a particular time, but in regard to what constitutes good literature in general. He must also have an accuracy of judgment, perhaps instinctive, which will teach him the best way to convey to others a just, general impression of a book as well as a right perception of its details. He must be unswerving in his devotion to a high literary standard, and so loyal to truth that if he mislead his readers in respect to the work criticised, he will feel as if he were guilty of treason to his calling or incapable of meeting its high demands. A critic of character and ability would inevitably be recognized as a reliable authority. No vivid imagination is needed to foretell the effect upon American literature of a class of professional critics, appreciating the dignity of their work and their responsibility in it. They would rapidly bring about a revolution, and instead of an overproduction of mediocre writing we might expect an impressive amount of literature of high rank, and would then feel justified in claiming a national literature, representing a body of men and women writers, of merit enough to establish for us an honored place in the world of letters.

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MARY E. CARDWILL.

THE FOUNDING OF UNIVERSITIES AN ANTIDOTE TO AMERICAN MATERIALISM

In a thoughtful article, in a recent issue of the London "Spectator," the subject is discussed of the founding in California of a great city of learning—a scheme which has been set on foot through the princely benefactions of the late Senators Stanford and Hearst, and to which English attention has been called through some letters written in the London "Times" by Mr. George F. Parker, our Consul at Birmingham. The importance of the project, which is outlined by Mr. Parker, and the value set upon the scheme as an antidote to the materialism of the age, induces us to reproduce the article in these pages. America, says the writer in "The Spectator," is a land of contrasts. As her physical atmosphere is brilliant and generally devoid of the misty effects and half-tones of Europe, so is her social life clearly defined. There is no shading, no suggestion of neutral tints. Even the American intellect is much the same. All is clear, at times hard and metallic, but always more straightforward and sincere than is the mind of Europe. The Old World is so conscious of a prolonged past, its sympathies and its judgment are so apt to be divided, its long experience leads it to so distrust sudden resolutions, it sees life to be so complex, that it often hesitates to act. In the New World, however, man does not brood, he acts, and he considers action as the true end of life. He is resolute, practical, he sees one thing clearly, and goes for that. Consequently America as a whole does not present the same total effect as Europe. In Europe we see the merging of tones, the shading of mental and moral qualities into one another; the bare outlines of the structure are concealed under the flowing draperies of custom and time.

In America, on the contrary, each element of life stands out clearly; virtue and vice, vulgarity and culture, greed and self-denial, are more distinct shapes, jostling each other on the broad highways of life, and giving an impression of fatal collision and utter collapse which is by no means justified by the real facts. We have been led to make these reflections by the remarkable project for a "city of learning" contained in the letter of Mr. George F. Parker, United States Consul at Birmingham, which appeared in the "Times" on Monday. If there is a city in the wide world which is the home of the practical, of the material, of "smartness," in the American sense, whose social life stands out with the clearness of a rock in the desert, and upon whose life the brooding spirit of poetry and mysticism never descends, it is San Francisco; and yet it is close by this intensely modern and feverish city that it is proposed to found a great seat of learning which rivals in its conception the Benedictine monasteries of the Middle Ages. What deeper contrast could be imagined?

The contrast is even deepened when we recollect the way in which California's two great universities have been founded. Both are endowed by Senators, themselves millionaires, one of whom made his wealth by railways, the other by mines. Stanford University at Palo Alto is the great monument to the late Senator Stanford, and the other seat of learning will be an even more striking monument to the late Senator Hearst, though it seems to be his widow who is actually providing for the carrying out of the scheme. What this scheme is Mr. Parker tells us. There is at present at Berkeley, in California, a beautiful place overlooking the Bay of San Francisco, an institution called the University of California, which has existed some thirty years, a part of whose income is derived from land subsidies, and part from a tax of two cents on each £20 of the taxable wealth of the State. This tax yields annually about £50,000, besides which the University receives £8,000 annually from the United States, and possesses resources of about £1,800,000, so that it is a wealthy institution from an English point of view. It has also two thousand three hundred students, which number is expected to rise to five thousand after ten years, or two thousand more than are to be found at Oxford.

It is proposed now to convert this institution into a "city of learning," and for this purpose Mrs. Hearst, widow of the late Senator Hearst, has advanced

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the enormous funds needed. It may be asked why an institution already doing so well should require money, and this leads direct to the central idea of the scheme, which is that of building a new and splendid series of palaces or temples of learning. The existing buildings are to be, apparently, done away with; and on the site on which they stand twenty-eight buildings, "all mutually related," are to be reared, and designs for this splendid project are now invited from the architects of the world. There will be, it is announced, "no definite limitations of cost, material, and style, so far as the plans are concerned." Full discretion is to be left to the designer, and we gather that he is to have ample time in order to carry out his work, — a vital point, as it seems to us. An international jury of five men will award the architectural prize, and the programme has already been prepared by Professor Guadet, of the École des Beaux Arts in Paris.

On the face of it this is a grand scheme, reminding one of those famous competitions in Italy in which Brunelleschi and Michael Angelo took part. There is the making or the marring of a magnificent idea in the project. Let us say at once that the conception does honor to the nascent citizenship of the Pacific States, and that it is worthy of a nation whose rich men have already done so much for the higher culture. It is, indeed, significant (and it is a part of the striking American contrasts we have dwelt on) that so many American wealthy men, whose money has come from coal or iron, or railways or banking, when they turn to consider how they shall endow the public with their surplus wealth, are not governed by merely utilitarian considerations. They do not so readily build hospitals or free libraries or working-men's clubs, as endow seats of learning with vast sums. This is a sign of the idealism which, as Lowell said, lay hid in the American character. Perhaps we may see even more in it than praiseworthy generosity. The danger of all modern new countries, of Australia and South Africa even more than the United States, is to fall into the slough of mere materialism, to be immersed in business, to think, hear, feel, know nothing else. We all admit that the life of the State must have a physical basis, but that the superstructure should be merely material would be the collapse of civilization.

There are growing signs that America feels this danger, and that a reaction is coming. The restlessness of the masses, the rising wave of indignation against wealthy monopolies, the greater willingness of educated men to enter the political arena, the warning voice of the Churches, both Protestant and Catholic, the building of such a superb institution as the new Boston Public Library, adorned by the first artists in the world, — these and other signs of a reaction against materialism of life are manifest. But there is no surer sign than the endowment of great schools of learning, — not the little sectarian colleges so numerous in America, and so little helpful, as a rule, to culture, but of grand universities which shall stand as a protest against the theory that moneymaking is the end of life, and which shall give voice to the claims of the soul. We indulge the hope that the projected "city of learning" on the slopes of the Pacific has arisen out of a conviction of this kind; we trust that it has grown out of a desire to identify California in the thought of the world with something else than mines, ranches, and newly enriched millionaires.

But there is danger that the scheme may be marred both on its material and intellectual sides. The present site of the University is spoken of as being two hundred and seventy-five acres. It seems to us that no buildings worthy to embody the idea of a "city of learning" can be erected on such a narrow ground. A space of ten times that extent should be chosen, a space of noble woodlands, of water, of leafy avenues and grassy meadows. California has room enough, in all conscience, with a territory one-third as large again as that of the United Kingdom, and with only half the population of London. To cramp such an institution within narrow bounds while rich stock-raisers have estates miles long would be fatal to the material side of the scheme. So would unworthy or unsuitable architecture The World's Fair at Chicago was an astonishing revelation of the genius of American architecture when unfettered by ignorance, red-tape, and political "pulls." What was done there in lath and plaster for a few months should be done in California in stone and marble for centuries. There should be

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not merely fine conceptions, but beauty of detail,—the usual defect in a country which does not realize that all the noble buildings of Europe took decades, and even generations, for their accomplishment.

The head architect (how one would delight in filling such a place and securing the immortality of a Michael Angelo, an Erwin of Steinbach, or a Bramante!) should, of course, have an absolutely free hand, and there should be no idea of completing the buildings before 1920 at the earliest. Immense strength for the resistance of earthquakes should be an element, and shady cloisters for a sunny clime should be another. A modification either of Spanish architecture or of the finest Romanesque of North Italy would seem to be most suitable; but there should, we think, be some variety of type within the enclosure. Why not, indeed, employ different architects, each of whom should work out his own design, but in subordination to a grand and harmonious whole?

But the scheme may be marred on its intellectual, or, to be more accurate, on its spiritual, side. Institutions of great worth are not brought into being by the fiat of wealth or the decisions of a committee; they are the product of ages. There is nothing of value in the world that is not of slow growth, adapting itself, bit by bit, to new needs. "Raw haste, half-sister to delay," is the curse of our time, the curse of new countries, and it is especially fatal to the proper growth of a great seat of learning. Let the University of California grow naturally, we would therefore say; let no hard scheme be devised. Wise management and lavish expenditure may accomplish much in a comparatively brief time, as we see in the case of the University of Berlin, which, founded so recently as 1809, is now the greatest seat of learning in Europe. But then Berlin was initiated by a King, who had behind him scholars almost unrivalled in the world of learning, and California cannot boast a Fichte or Wilhelm von Humboldt.

Once more, let not the "city of learning" be a mere busy hive of specializing, a mere collection of intellectual Gradgrins intent on collecting facts. The great universities of the Middle Ages were bent on real culture, on the training of the will, the intellect, the affections; their scholarship was related to life, as was that of the schools of Athens in their best days. What the modern world most needs is the systematizing of the vast body of knowledge we possess, and the utilizing it for the highest public life and the noblest spiritual ends. We do not need to add to the number of mere mathematicians, mere logicians, mere philologists, mere engineers, mere anatomists; we have enough, and perhaps to spare, of all these. What the world needs is a lofty and rounded type of character, an original intellect, a larger and higher personality, which shall guide and elevate this weltering mass of democracy, so low in its aims, so helpless in its outlook. If the "city of learning" can do that for us, who will not be eager to take a ticket thither on the first opportunity?

STUDIES IN MODERN HISTORY:

THE MENACE TO THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.*

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY is a political community in flux, or as the Germans put it, *im Werden*. Devoid of the unity which race, religion, language, literature, and common laws effect, it cannot be called a nation in the sense in which England, France, and Germany are nations. It is a limbo of political fragments gravitating with one exception towards other States, but which no other State could annex without exciting the jealousy and arousing the opposition of powerful rivals. Since it first received its name, in 1806, Austria has been continuously undergoing a process of internal change, progressing or receding according to the point of view of the spectator. Within certain well-defined limits these modifications, which are always interesting to the student, leave the practical politician indifferent. But there are other possible

* From the "Contemporary Review," New York: Leonard Scott Pub. Company, 1898.

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developments which must necessarily affect all Europe, change the political centre of gravity, and produce serious international complications. The Habsburg monarchy seems to be on the verge of some such change just now, in fact certain of its most influential ethnographical elements are already taking measures to prepare for the eventuality. To-day it is a dual State, and is officially known as Austria-Hungary. To-morrow, however, it may become Austria-Hungary-Bohemia. At present the Empire is, politically speaking, German, in virtue of the law of *vis inertiæ*, and it forms the corner-stone of the Triple Alliance. In a short time its sympathies may become Slav and its foreign policy philo-Russian. This, however, is but one of a series of possibilities, the realization of any one of which would be equally fraught with the gravest consequences.

The Empire owes its greatness — nay, its existence — to the ruin of a number of other States, some of which once played a conspicuous and even glorious part in European history, just as the detrital rock known as pudding-stone is composed of the water-worn *débris* of other rocks which once had an independent existence of their own. The delusion which the main component elements of Austria seem to labor under, is that all the pebbles and cobbles can be removed from this political pudding-stone without affecting its character; and the danger they incur lies in their strenuous and persevering endeavor to act upon this delusion. This is the Austro-Hungarian problem in a nutshell. Home rule was conceded to Hungary in 1867; why not, they ask, extend it to Bohemia in 1898, and replace centralization with federation? Such is the question in its simplest form.

The answers are numerous. Two, however, will amply suffice for the moment. The experiment is dangerous because the change to federation necessarily involves a number of other changes so far-reaching that they must inevitably affect foreign States and provoke their interference. The second reason is equally cogent: were it feasible to steer clear of international troubles, it would still be impossible to avoid civil war, for such is the peculiar ethnographical mixture which we see in Austria, that no scheme of federation can possibly be devised which would not constitute a flagrant violation of the rights of one or more of the nationalities within the monarchy itself. And heretofore this peculiarity has always been looked upon as a guarantee for the durability of the present arrangement.

If the members of each different race were massed together in one district, the problem would be considerably simplified. But this is very far from being the case. The territory of each is dotted over with large ethnographical islands formed by rival races, as, for instance, Bohemia with German settlements; or else a people of the same stock is split up into tribes possessing different languages or dialects, different alphabets, different histories, and different religions. This is the weak point of the Slavs. They are racially split up and geographically scattered. We are wont to label them all with one name, which warrants the belief that they are one people. But the name is a misnomer and the belief a mistake. In a matter of this kind statistics are extremely misleading. Let us say, for instance — and the statement is quite correct — that there are nearly fifteen millions of Slavs in Austria proper,* as against eight and three-quarter million Germans.† What is more natural than to conclude that, as the Slavs outnumber the Germans in the proportion of nearly two to one, they should likewise enjoy a corresponding degree of political influence? Or, put it in another form: if it be meet and just that the Magyars‡ should be allowed to rule a country containing seventeen and a half million persons, wherein they themselves number only seven and a half millions, why should it not be equally — nay, much more — just that the Slavs should govern Austria, seeing that, out of a population of twenty-eight and three-quarter millions they number fourteen and three-quarter millions?

The fact is that the unity of the Slavs is hardly more than an ethnographical abstraction. For political purposes it is non-existent. Thus the Poles are not Czechs, § although both are Slavs; they

* The exact number is 14,805,000. In the Austro-Hungarian Empire there are 21½ million Slavs who do not control the destinies of the monarchy, as against 16 million Germans and Magyars who do.

† In exact numbers 8,840,000.

‡ Hungarians.

§ Hungarians.

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speak different tongues, the former possessing a rich literature, the latter a very poor one; their political history has little in common, and as late as four years ago the Poles were allied with the Germans against their brothers, the Czechs.* The Ruthenians, who are also Slavs, have no great love for the Czechs, while they utterly loathe the Poles, and their language is very different indeed from that of either of the other two peoples, as are also their alphabet (they use Russian characters) and their religion. The Czech idiom is to the Ruthenian as German is to the English, or as French is to the Roumanian. Then come the Croatians, who are not only Slavs, but the very purest specimens of the race; and they would feel mortally offended if they were confounded with any of the foregoing. The Slovenians, whose very name proclaims them to be Slavs, would be less wrathful at such a mistake, probably because their very backward state of civilization would lead them to regard it as a compliment. But they differ in many respects from Czechs, Poles, Ruthenians, and Croatians. Nothing, however, could characterize the situation more satisfactorily than the circumstance that, whenever a Panslavonic Conference is convoked, the chosen representatives of the various Slavic sections are forced to converse with each other in German! Thus the Slavs of Austria-Hungary are not united by the bond of religion, history, language, literature, or identical political aspirations. Even at the present moment the Polish Slavs in Austria persecute their brethren, the Ruthenians, quite as ruthlessly as the Russians used to persecute the Poles.

The peoples already mentioned by no means exhaust the list of ethnographical fragments in Austria-Hungary. There are about three million Roumanians, almost a million and a half Slovenians, two million Jews, and nearly three-quarters of a million Italians, etc., etc. And they intersect each other everywhere. The Germans are settled in Transylvania among the Hungarians, in Moravia, in Bohemia, and in Silesia among the Slavs; the Czechs are invading Austria, and are particularly numerous in Vienna; while the Jews are migrating to Bosnia. When we say, therefore, that the Germans of Austria or the Magyars of Hungary are in a minority, we are comparing them not with one race but with various races, and the conclusion we draw is false. The Germans possess a relative majority in Austria just as the Magyars do in Hungary; and that is an essential point.

Now, complicated as the problem already is, it would be relatively simple if political parties ran parallel with these national fragments. But this is very far from being the case. It by no means follows that because a man is a Czech he is also a partisan of Federalism and a hater of the Germans. He may be a Clerical, or he may be a Social-Democrat. In like manner, a German may be an enemy of the German party because he happens to be a Conservative, a Clerical, or an anti-Semite. The Serbs and Croatians are not only one and the same race, but they speak the same language; yet they hate each other because they are members of different churches. The Germans, as we saw, instead of presenting a united front to the enemy, are split up into half a dozen political factions who breathe fire and flame against one another. And so on to the end of the chapter; the threads become hopelessly entangled and confusion worse confounded.

The one centripetal force in the Empire is the Emperor, Francis Joseph, who enjoys the affection of all parties in the State. The magic of his words, the chivalry of his character, the strength underlying his human weakness, and the poignancy of his suffering, irresistibly draw his subjects to him, and in the wildest political storm an utterance of his suffices to produce a profound calm, during which the voice of reason has a chance of being heard. By force of circumstances and by dint of experience he is become the most far-sighted statesman in his own Empire and, it may be, in all Europe. He can understand all parties, for he passed through most of them himself, and what is equally to the point, he can fathom motives and appreciate persons. In 1848 he was an Absolutist of the type of his friend and ally, Nicholas I. of Russia; he next became an Opportunist; after which he turned

*The Slavonic inhabitants of Bohemia. They form roughly about three-fifths of the population of that country. The Germans constitute the other two-fifths. The word is pronounced almost identically with the English word "checks."

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Liberal; and at one time he went so far as to adopt Federalism itself. It is highly probable that as long as Franz Josef lives the dual Empire may contrive to subsist on its present basis, but only on condition that no wild experiments are attempted. A return to Absolutism is not a whit more dangerous than a plunge into Federalism. Both would prove suicidal.

The present critical condition of Austria is the logical outcome of its historical development, and in order to be understood aright, must be viewed in the light of history. This is no difficult task seeing that the most ancient of the events in question are not quite as old as the century. The wars of Napoleon I., which had acted as an irresistible solvent upon the German Empire, left the Kaiser still at the head of a powerful State, over which he ruled without Parliament or Ministry. The one branch of legislation which pointed to Liberalism was the section dealing with the relations between Church and State; the one remnant of old times which still suggested Federalism was the quasi-independence of the various provinces of which the Empire was composed. Thus, on the one hand, the Roman Catholic Church was entirely under the thumb of the government, Joseph II. having placed it upon a Procrustean bed of his own making, and there it lay till the beginning of the second half of this century. Between Hungary and Austria, on the other hand, there existed a vigilantly-watched customs cordon, and a high tariff of duties was levied on various kinds of produce. Austria at this stage was an unwieldy Empire, not a modern State.

In 1848 it was shattered to its foundations. Hungary rose up in rebellion. The dynasty was seriously threatened. The military aid of Russia was sought for and obtained. Then a new man suddenly appeared upon the scene, young, energetic, hopeful, and devotedly attached to the principles of Conservatism as understood by the feudal nobility of Central Europe. This man was the Emperor Francis Joseph. His one ruling idea was to preserve intact the heritage of his forefathers and to weld his heterogeneous peoples into a compact State. One of the surest methods of compassing this end would have been the Germanization of the Slavs and Magyars, had the moment been propitious. Unfortunately it was too late. The sentiment of nationality had been already awakened in the breasts of the Magyars; it had never been extinguished among the Poles; and the philological studies which were flourishing in Germany called it into new life among the Bohemians. Another method, far less efficacious and infinitely slower, would have been the creation of a code of laws for the whole Empire. But for many reasons this scheme was never undertaken. The only other way remaining was to enlist the all-powerful Church in the cause, and make it a willing instrument in the hands of the State. And this Francis Joseph set about doing.

The vast majority of Austrians were members of the Roman Catholic Church. The Protestants and the Orthodox were but as dust in the balance when compared with these. The bulk of the people were uneducated, superstitious, submissive, mere clay in the hands of the spiritual potters, and nothing seemed easier than to mould and shape them politically in accordance with the Emperor's desire. The experiment was duly tried, and bade fair to justify the most sanguine hopes. A Concordat was concluded with the Vatican; the Church regained her independence, and the clergy accomplished yeomen's service in the cause of Absolutism. But "the best laid schemes o' mice and men gang oft a-gley," and the chapter of accidents thwarted the statesmanlike plans of the Emperor. Hungary, after the removal of the customs cordon, entered into commercial relations with Europe, throve, "waxed fat," and, like Jeshurun of old, began to kick. A Liberal government took over the reins of power, and in 1868 laws were passed which no casuistry could reconcile with the terms of the agreement entered into by the Austrian State and the Vatican. From this time forth the Germans were split up into factions, the Liberals and Clericals hating each other more profoundly than Germans and Slavs. And, finally, the Federalist current acquired such strength that the Emperor himself nominated a Cabinet of Autonomists.

But the most fateful step of all was the concession of virtual independence to Hungary, which rendered the year 1867 the turning-point in the history of

the House of Habsburg. The gifted Magyars, forming but a fraction of the entire population of the kingdom, although relatively in a majority, assumed absolute power over the whole. They at once gave the Croatians a system of restricted home rule, and then set themselves to Magyarize the other nationalities. From that day to this latent war has existed between the Magyars and the Slavs and Roumanians of the kingdom of Hungary, and from that day to this the Bohemians, Moravians, Slovacks, etc., have insisted on their right to go and do likewise. This example was partially followed in Austria proper. Four years later, the Poles of Galicia obtained home rule and the right of governing or misgoverning three and three-quarter millions of Ruthenians, and immediately afterwards another bill was drafted, which Parliament would have passed by a large majority, giving to Bohemia the same privileges as those enjoyed by Hungary. The opposition of the Magyars, under Count Andrassy, hindered this bill from becoming law, and wrecked the Ministry which, with the Emperor's sanction, had drafted it. From that day to this Bohemia has played the part of Ireland in Austria, and the question of autonomy for the Czechs is at the root of most of the trouble that worries the Emperor and paralyzes the Parliament.

When we speak of the Austrian Parliament, we are forced to use an expression which cannot but prove misleading to the ordinary reader unacquainted with the constitution of the dual Empire. In one sense the number of Parliaments in the monarchy is legion; in another sense, there is not one. Austria proper, as distinguished from Hungary, has seventeen legislative assemblies* and one central Imperial Parliament, not one of which is truly representative of the people. *Ex officio* members of the seventeen Diets are the Archbishops and Bishops of the Roman Catholic and Orthodox Churches and the Rectors of the Universities. Then come the representatives of great landowners; the wealthiest class of the urban population send delegates; the boards of commerce and the guilds also elect a certain number. Rural districts are compelled first to choose spokesmen, who then elect a representative. Austria's earliest Imperial Parliament was the creation of her first "Liberal" Ministry, which assumed the reins of power in the year 1860. It consisted exclusively of representatives of the wealthiest classes, mainly Germans and Jews, who were not elected by the people, but chosen by the Diets. Twelve years later, the so-called "Citizen Ministry" proclaimed the principle of direct election. Like most "Liberal" Cabinets in Austria, it was actuated by a desire to forward the interests of the party, which were wholly distinct from those of the people. The electoral law was therefore based on the principle of class. Thus there were representatives of the great landed estates, of cities, market-places and industrial centres, and of chambers of commerce. A few delegates from rural districts were also admitted, but they could not be elected directly by the people. Characteristic of this state of things is the circumstance that the Chamber of Commerce of Galicia has but eighty-seven electors, and sends three deputies to Parliament; that of Styria possesses sixty-four constituents, who send two members. In Moravia nineteen landowners choose one member of Parliament, and in Bohemia nineteen wealthy landlords possess and exercise the right of choosing another. In the Parliament thus constituted there were 353 members, over twenty parties, and no majority.

The late Premier, Count Taaffe, managed to govern Austria for fourteen years with the help of this extraordinary Assembly, coquetting now with one party and now with another. The feat was little less than a political miracle. The means by which he accomplished it were innumerable, but nothing stood him in such good stead as his thorough knowledge of men and motives. The Czechs, who a short time before had found themselves within sight of autonomy, were determined to take no further part in Parliamentary work, and to abstain from the Assembly altogether. Count Taaffe induced them to reconsider their decision, and things moved very smoothly until the Czech people withdrew their confidence from their representatives and replaced them with fiery hot Nationalists, who seemed amenable to no consider-

* They are called Landtage or Diets, and consist of a number of members varying from 22, as in the Diet of Görz and Gradiska, to 242 as in that of Bohemia.

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ations which any Austrian Minister could lay before them. Then the Parliamentary machine for the first time stood still. There was but one way of remedying the evil — a very radical and drastic method for an Austrian government — and the Premier discerned and unhesitatingly chose it. He drew up a most comprehensive scheme of electoral reform and suddenly sprang it upon the Imperial Parliament. It was the first truly Liberal measure which had ever been laid before the Reichsrath, and it was received with howls of execration by all parties in the House, but more especially by the German "Liberals." Count Taaffe consequently fell, and Austrian politics difted into chaos.*

The Coalition Ministry which succeeded effected nothing and speedily broke to pieces. Count Badeni then appeared upon the scene in the part of "the Providential Man," which he undertook to play by special request. He had served the government as Viceroy of Galicia, ruling the Ruthenians with an iron rod for many years, but had no more idea of Parliamentary government, civil law, or elementary statesmanship than the average blacksmith has of the mechanism of ladies' watches. He was utterly unacquainted with parties and people in Vienna, and absolutely averse from consulting those who might have given him serviceable advice. A Pole of the Poles, he formed a Cabinet in which Ministers of that nationality predominated, and he succeeded in rendering the very name of his nation odious in Austrian ears. Had he been born in Turkey he would have had few peers among the pashas; but when he called in the police for the purpose of expelling Austrian members of Parliament, even the Emperor's friendship no longer availed to save him.

Count Badeni found in the present Reichsrath the same Parliamentary materials which his predecessor, Count Taaffe, had left, with the sole addition of the Socialists, whose number is very restricted. Thus there were sixty-eight Poles, seventy-nine Czechs, forty-seven German Nationalists, forty-three German Conservatives and Clericals, thirty Christian Socialists, nineteen Italians, sixteen Slovenians, and so on through a list of about thirty little groups. As the Czechs and the Germans, with the assistance of kindred little fractions, practically hold each other evenly balanced, the compact mass of Poles turn the scales and form a majority on whichever side they choose. Their support is, therefore, absolutely indispensable to any and every government. Their price is high, but, as they already enjoy political autonomy, it is paid them in economical concessions and portfolios in the Cabinet. Galicia is one of the so-called "passive" provinces of the Empire, and draws freely upon the German and Czech population for the means of eking out its existence.

Count Badeni experienced no difficulty whatever in securing the services of his countrymen in the Reichsrath, and as he was quite prepared to buy up the Czechs, he considered himself master of the situation. The policy which he was believed to favor was that of the Federalists. He was disposed to recognize the "historic rights" of the peoples who compose the Empire of Austria. Translated into everyday language, that phrase means the reconstitution of the old feudal kingdom of St. Wenceslaus, comprising Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, the re-establishment of the kingdom of Poland, and the resurrection of Zvonimir's kingdom in the south, including Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, with Bosnia and Herzegovina thrown in. This would give Austria, which already possesses two Cabinets, three Imperial Councils, and over twenty Parliaments, several new legislative assemblies and Imperial Councils. It would also mean war with Hungary. Whether Franz Josef would have any subjects to govern after the metamorphosis is another question, which Count Badeni deems inopportune. Overtures, however, in this sense, were made to the Czechs who had for years been posing as Democrats and Radicals, and they closed with the offer and divested themselves of their principles in a twinkling. The first instalment of the price stipulated was paid last April, in the form known as the *Sprachenverordnung*, or language decree.

The question of tongues has for many years past caused much bad blood and still worse language throughout the Empire. Every idiom claims a right to oust

* Count Badeni was compelled to give a small instalment of the Electoral Franchise Bill drawn up by his predecessor. But it amounts to very little indeed.

every other idiom. This is natural and patriotic. Every people likes its own tongue best. The first step of the Magyars on receiving autonomy in 1867 was to proscribe German and discourage every language but their own. Their last move, at the close of 1897, has been to replace the names of German towns and districts with Hungarian ones. In Austria proper the language dispute raged principally in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, where the proportion of Germans to Czechs is approximately as two-fifths to three-fifths. Now of all the nationalities in the monarchy the Germans are the least aggressive and the most amenable to reason. They have always rested the claims of their language on its own merits, and have done nothing politically to support them. There was a time when they might have Germanized the Empire, but they allowed the opportunity to slip by unutilized. Fifty years ago the city of Prague contained 73,000 cultured Germans and only 50,000 Czechs, mostly illiterate. The former took no measures to perpetuate their supremacy, fondly regarding the actual condition of things as final; the latter forged ancient literary monuments, "arranged" the census returns, and moved heaven and earth to oust the German tongue out of Bohemia. Still the Germans felt sure of success.

And appearances warranted the assumption. There was no Czech literature to speak of, no culture, no science except the German. But the Slavs are a very gifted and enterprising race, and steer straight for the end in view without worrying themselves over the ethics of ways and means. The discovery of the old German epic *Die Nibelungen* stimulated the Czechs to make a similar discovery in their own literature, and as nothing of the kind happened to exist, they invented one—the "Königenhofer" manuscript. This was the foundation of the literary movement among the Slavs of Bohemia, who owe all that they have and much of what they are to the teaching and culture of the Germans, who, neglecting their own national interests, played the disinterested part of cosmopolitans. The Czechs never acknowledged the debt which even foreigners cannot feign to ignore. But the final break between the two nationalities occurred in 1848, when the Germans sacrificed everything for liberal ideas, while the Slavs identified themselves with the reaction.

Since Austria first received a quasi-constitutional government in the beginning of the sixties, the struggle between the two peoples became more bitter and intense. The Czechs, allied with all the Clerical, Conservative, and feudal factions, left nothing undone to drive Austria into Federalism, and to obtain the fullness of home rule as enjoyed in Hungary, with the concomitant right of life and death over the Germans. During all those years, therefore, the Habsburg monarchy had to struggle with an internal disease which threatened to break it up into its component parts. The circumstances that many of the most uncompromising champions of Federalism were Germans who had become Czechs and Germans who, without abjuring their nationality, supported the principles of feudalism and reaction, imported into the struggle an element of rancor and bitterness paralleled only by the hatred existing between Roman Catholics and Orangemen in the north of Ireland. Home rule in Bohemia would mean the denationalization of the German element, which, when all has been said and done, will be found to have contributed more than the Czechs or even the government to the prosperity of the country. The very first step taken would be the proscription of the German tongue throughout Bohemia. Yet this measure was conceded by Count Badeni as the first instalment of the price which he promised to pay for the Parliamentary support of the Czech.

[*To be concluded in April.*]

* * *

"The publication of M. Zola's 'Paris' (Macmillan Co., New York) will fall on the very eve of his trial for his outspoken defence of Dreyfus. The novel itself will reveal Zola's passionate love of truth and justice. In this, his latest work, he has forestalled by his graphic description the very pandemonium into which Paris and the National Assembly have been thrown by his ringing challenge to the President. Zola has discovered himself, and France, perhaps, is about to discover Zola. He has shocked even his countrymen by the practice of his theory that in order to remedy an evil it must be shown in all its revolting truth. His fearless championship of Dreyfus is but another phase of the courage which has shown itself in his philosophy and his writings."

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GREAT EDUCATORS — THE TWO ARNOLDS

VERY fitly does the series of books, now being published in England and in this country on the Great Educators, take the two Arnolds, father and son, as the subjects for a recent issue. The volume has been prepared by Sir Joshua G. Fitch, LL.D., the well-known writer on educational matters in England and until recently the chief inspector of British Training Colleges. Reviewing the volume the other day, the "Athenæum" observes that Sir Joshua Fitch, as he himself acknowledges, has not been able to add new material but simply to bring into prominence those features in the character of Thomas Arnold and his son "which are likely to be of permanent value to the professional teacher." He goes over the well-known story with a good deal of freshness, and selects characteristic dicta of Arnold's with judgment. He does not perhaps quite realize that Arnold's real distinction was not so much to have introduced new views on education (those were in the air already) as to have rendered possible the almost indefinite extension of that public-school system which, with all its faults, is, and might be in a far higher degree, the salt of English civilization. . . . Thanks to Arnold, not only Rugby, but a dozen other schools, some of recent foundation, have learnt what a tradition means, and can — in varying degrees, no doubt, but all genuinely — confer on those who have been trained at them the right to call themselves "citizens of no mean city."

There is no need to follow Sir Joshua Fitch through the many interesting topics upon which his little book touches; but a point here and there may be noted. It is curious that in his dislike to what he calls the "antiquated and soulless exercise" of Greek and Latin verse-making, he should have quoted a remark of Dr. Farrar's which suggests at once what is, perhaps, its great educational merit in the hands of a competent teacher.

Of Matthew Arnold the world knows as much as of his father, or perhaps more. Few people who take any interest in literature are unfamiliar with him as a writer; many knew him as a friend. Yet it is with literature rather than with education, in spite of his thirty-five years' connection with the Department, that most associate him; and Sir Joshua Fitch has done well to draw attention to real services rendered by him in what, more by accident than by predilection, came to be the task of his life. The testimony is all the more valuable that (as all who have been fortunate enough to be acquainted with both will allow) no two men, both being men of genuine zeal, could well be more unlike in mind, method, and manner than the author of the book before us and his former colleague. Arnold was a polished poet, a lively critic, coruscating both in his writings and in his talk with wit and happy phrases. Sir Joshua Fitch, it is safe to say, has never coruscated in his life; he has been a sensible, serviceable, trustworthy official, whom, for many reasons one might have expected to look rather suspiciously on his brilliant colleague's official qualifications. It speaks, therefore, well for both men when we find him writing: —

> "I am unable to agree with those who think Arnold's great gifts were thrown away upon a thankless and insignificant office. It is true, he regarded many of its duties as task-work, and that he reserved the best of himself for literary and other employments more congenial to him. But it is also true that his influence on the schools was in its own way far more real and telling then he himself supposed. Indirectly, his fine taste, his gracious and kindly manner, his honest and generous recognition of any new form of excellence which he observed, all tended to raise the aims and the tone of the teachers with whom he came in contact, and to encourage in them self-respect and respect for their work."

It is, of course, in dealing with the educational side of both men that Sir Joshua Fitch is at his best, and all teachers should read and mark chapters III., IV., V., IX., and X. But he does justice to the father as a scholar, to the son as a man of letters. His criticisms on Matthew Arnold's tone towards Nonconformists are fair and temperate; but to account for certain social conditions is not necessarily to compel acquiescence in them.

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THE "NEW WOMAN" IN HER RELATION TO THE "NEW MAN"

EVERYBODY to-day has a fling at the "New Woman," as though she were a product *per se*. Even those who believe in her goodness and sincerity, treat her characteristics as the fevered fancy of a sick child, and are indulgent to her "vagaries" because they feel that "she will get over it after a while." Over what her enemies say let us draw the veil.

The world at large, in this matter, says a writer in the "Westminster Review," seems strangely oblivious to Nature's laws. It appears to forget that everything must have a *raison d'être*, and seems to feel that the new woman is a spontaneous product, evolved, as was the world, "out of nothing." Nevertheles the fact remains that the new women has in man her first great cause, concerning whom the world seems strangely reticent or absolutely oblivious. But he lives all the same, and has much to answer for in the changes which so displease his sex.

While woman has become "new," does man fancy that *he* has remained at a standstill? If he does he flatters himself vastly. And from him are the characteristics of the "new woman" mainly evolved.

One of the greatest offences laid at the door of the long-suffering female, is that she has invaded the field of labor which distinctly belongs to her brother, and has taken up many of the pursuits hitherto regarded as suitable for man only. This, say her enemies, she has undertaken from a desire to be pronounced and independent. The statement is a mistake, to put it in its mildest light. The masculine woman is no more common than the effeminate man. Going out into the world and earning a living for herself and others, no more makes woman masculine, than does helping his wife with the care of the children effeminate man. But desertion and neglect on the part of the "old" man were comparatively rare; and a man once having taken upon himself the care and protection of a wife and family, felt that chivalry, if nothing else, demanded a faithful discharge of self-imposed obligations. To-day, we find a decided decay of such sentiments, and our courts are filled with complainants, in all classes of society. Desertion, neglect, cruelty, infidelity — infidelity, cruelty, neglect, desertion — so on and on, backwards and forwards, day after day, month after month. The new man seems to feel but little responsibility in household and family matters. Many a girl is also called upon to-day to help to meet the family expenses with which her father can no longer cope. Quite as much is it the fault of the masculine head of the family as that of the feminine head, that appearances must be kept up (the curse of at least English social life), thus causing a strain of every nerve. Nor is it a rare thing to-day for a woman to be obliged to support herself and her children, while her husband spends his time in idleness or worse. There are good, kind husbands still, hundreds of thousands of them, but the number who have shirked their responsibilities is ever on the increase.

While this is the case, the women in the field of masculine labor will also be ever increasing in number. The few avenues once upon a time open to women as legitimate feminine labor, were overcrowded long ago. If men leave their wives and daughters to support themselves and their families — not wholly an unusual case — they must be content to give them room beside themselves in the field of masculine labor. What are "distinctly feminine pursuits," by the way? Sewing and cooking are two, let us say. Then what of our *tailors* and *bakers*? If men may sew and bake, why may not women keep books and superintend vast business enterprises? You all know the old adage which refers to the "sauce" for both members of the goose family. Simply because men have sewed and baked and brewed from time immemorial does not alter the fact that for all these ages they have been doing "women's work." Surely it is not for them to complain now that women wish to enter their realm.

Let us look at another and much uglier aspect of this case. The New Woman is accused of being "advanced," loud, coarse, slangy, mannish. There are such women, plenty of them, but here

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again is man himself the distinct *raison d'être*. Society is always what the men make it, let who will say to the contrary. The influence of woman over man is not one-half of that of man over woman, let who will deny it. Since time was, woman has made it her aim to try to please man, and much has she been reviled for her efforts in this line. Let a man express an opinion, and all his women friends try to live up to it (or down to it, as the case may be). Let him say he likes a color, and every woman will adopt it. Therefore, while the men continue to follow in the train of the fast, slangy women, calling them "fine women," laughing at their more than doubtful jokes, proud to be seen with them, bantering them with a familiarity that a good, true woman would resent, what can they expect of the young girl upon whom society and the world is just dawning, but that she will model her conduct after that of her elders, and upon the opinion of the men around her? When they tacitly approve of a woman whose great charm is her daring defiance of conventionalities, a woman who prefers things that are *risqué* to those that are not, the young girl will follow in her wake. When a man declares openly that he does not like a prude, that he likes a women with "snap" and "go" in her, and "a spice of the devil," you may be very sure that all the budding young women will immediately try to mould themselves upon the line preferred by this fascinating male creature. A man will say that he would not have his wife or daughter or sister like these falsely-called "advanced" women, but while he openly admires them, he may be sure that wife, daughter, and sister will try to come up to his example. His precept goes for nothing.

When a man deplores the state of feminine society, let him look to himself, and to himself alone, for the remedy. He holds it in his power to make society what he will.

The truly advanced woman of to-day is just as good and true as was her grandmother. But she knows more, and in keeping up with the times and the demand upon her intellect is a much more companionable woman than the namby-pamby, milk-and-water creature extolled in the novels of the past. She is "advanced" in every line of goodness and worth, but her eyes have been opened wide to the terrors of evil, and she fights it for herself and children. She is a companion to her sons as well as to her daughters. She takes an interest in athletics, and can appreciate all her boys tell her about their sports. The "new" woman with her independence, her clearly defined ideas of right and wrong, her knowledge of the world, and her superior education, is far better fitted to be the mother of noble men than the "old" woman with her narrow environments and her knowledge, which went little beyond household lore. The "advanced" woman of to-day is miscalled "new." She is as old as the days of Delilah.

EMMA C. HEWITT.

Longevity among Contemporaries The following are among the world's eminent men and women born early in the century who are still living:— General George Sears Greene, late U. S. A., aged 95; Dr. James Martineau, theologian (brother of Harriet Martineau), and Hon. David Wark, "Father of the Canadian Senate," 93; Ex-Senator Bradbury, of Maine, 95; Ernest Legouvé (French Academician), 91; W. E. Gladstone, Cassius M. Clay, Admiral Sir Henry Keppel, R. N., R. W. Thompson, Ex-Secretary of the Navy (1877), 89; Pope Leo XIII., Lord Armstrong, inventor, and Senator J. S. Morrill, of Vermont, 88; Samuel Smiles, author, Charles L. Tiffany, New York jeweller, 86; Sir Henry Bessemer, inventor, 85; Baroness Burdett Coutts, and Guiseppe Verdi, composer, 84; Prince Bismarck, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and Adolf Menzel, German painter, 83; Ex-Senator H. L. Dawes (Mass.), Ex-Justice S. J. Field (late Supreme Court), Rev. Newman Hall, Philip James Bailey, poet, Park Godwin, and Russell Sage, 82; King Christian of Denmark, Theodore Mommsen, German historian, Sir Joseph Hooker, botanist, Ex-Senator J. M. Palmer (Ill.), and Bishop Williams (Conn.), 81; Ex-Senator W. M. Evarts (N. Y.), Baron Reuter, Ex-Senator Geo. S. Boutwell, Ex-Senator Wade Hampton (S. C.), Prince de Joinville, and Prof. Alex. Bain, Aberdeen, writer on pschyology, 80; Queen Victoria, Ex-Premier Crispi, John Ruskin, Lord Playfair, Duke of Cambridge, Sir Monier Williams, Julia Ward Howe, Bishop Huntington (N. Y.), and Ex-Senator Reagan (Tex.), 79; Herbert Spencer, Florence Nightingale, Susan B. Anthony, John Tenniel, "Punch" Cartoonist, General W. S. Rosecrans, 78; Prof. Virchow, Rev. Dr. Storrs, Ristori, the actress, Duc de Broglie, Sims Reeves, and Sir W. H. Russell, 77.

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THE STORY OF HUMAN PROGRESS:

THE ADVANCE OF MEDICINE IN THE PAST SIXTY YEARS*

IT is no idle boast, but the simple unvarnished truth, that medicine — in which term I include the whole art of healing, and the scientific laws on which its practice is based — has made greater progress during the last sixty years than it had done in the previous sixty centuries. The medical knowledge of the Egyptians, though considerable compared with that of other ancient peoples, was, as may be gathered from the fragments of their nosology and therapeutic formularies that have come down to us, but little above the traditional lore in such matters with which old women have in all ages been credited. The practical mind of Greece began by trying with Hippocrates to see things as they really were, but later fell away into the making of systems and the spinning of cobwebs of theory instead of observing facts. The Romans had for medicine and its professors a robust contempt. In the later days of the Roman Republic and under the Empire medicine men flourished exceedingly. Medicine itself, however, was at its best a mere empiric art, and in this condition it remained practically till Harvey's discovery, or announcement of his discovery, of the circulation of the blood, in 1628, laid the corner-stone of modern physiology, and thus prepared the foundation for a scientific medicine. From the seventeenth till the early part of the nineteenth century, though many improvements were made in the details of the art of healing, there was no great advance either in the conception of disease or in the principles of treatment. The discovery of vaccination itself, though one of the greatest practical importance, was merely the observation of a fact, not the enunciation of a law.

Sixty years ago, it is hardly too much to say, the average medical practitioner knew little more about the diseases of the heart, lungs, stomach, liver and kidneys than was known to Hippocrates. Auscultation had indeed been introduced some years before, but long after elderly gentlemen might be seen, when a stethoscope was offered to them at a consultation, to apply the wrong end to their ear. Fevers were classified with a sweet simplicity into "continued" and "intermittent," and as late as in the Fifties an eminent professor of surgery complained that his colleague, the professor of medicine, had invented a number of newfangled varieties. Of nervous diseases nothing was known. The larynx was a *terra incognita;* of the ear it was said by the leading medical journal of the day, many years later, that the only thing that could be done in the way of treatment was to syringe out the external passage with water. The diagnosis and treatment of diseases of the skin had advanced little beyond John Hunter's famous division of such affections into those which sulphur could cure, those which mercury could cure, and those which the devil himself couldn't cure. Pathology was a mere note-book of *post-mortem* appearances — a list of observations as dead as the bodies on which they were made. The New World of bacteriology had not yet found its Columbus.

In the domain of surgery progress had been far greater, and as regards operative skill and clinical insight Astley Cooper, Robert Liston, Dupuytren, and Larrey, were certainly not inferior to the men of the present day. Anæsthesia was, however, unknown, and the operating theatre was a place of unspeakable horrors. Wounds were dressed with wet rags, and suppuration was encouraged, as it was believed to be an essential part of the process of healing.

Broadly speaking, it may be said that the advance of the art of healing during the last sixty years has been along two main lines — the expansion of the territory of Surgery, and the development of Pathology, which concerns itself with the causes, processes, and effects of disease. It will probably help the reader to a clearer understanding of the present position of medicine if each of these two lines of evolution is considered in some detail.

The progress of surgery in the present age is due to two discoveries of an

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*This instructive paper, by Prof. Malcolm Morris, F. R. S. C., on the recent progress of medical and surgical science, is abridged for SELF CULTURE from an article in a late issue of "The Nineteenth Century." — ED. S. C.

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importance unequalled in the previous history of the healing art—*anæsthesia*, or the artificial abolition of pain, and *antisepsis*, or the prevention of infective processes in wounds. The former discovery was not made until about the year 1840; the latter nearly twenty years later. Let us take a brief glance backwards at what surgery was before the introduction of these two far-reaching improvements.

Of the horrors of operations before the discovery of anæsthesia there are men still living who can speak. Not long ago Dr. B. E. Cotting, ex-President of the Massachusetts Medical Society, contributed some personal reminiscences of pre-anæsthetic surgery to the "Boston Medical and Surgical Journal." Speaking of the first case in which he was called upon to use the knife, he says:—

> Our patient (a woman) writhed beyond the restraining power of strong and experienced men, and groaned to the horror of the terrified household, and afterwards to the day of her death could not think of the operation without convulsive shudders. Often did she hold up her hands, exclaiming, 'Oh, that knife! that awful knife! that horrible knife!'

Dr. Cotting sums up his recollections of such scenes as follows:—

> No mortal man can ever describe the agony of the whole thing from beginning to end, culminating in the operation itself with its terrifying expressions of infernal suffering.

A distinguished physician, who himself came under the surgeon's knife in the days before anæsthesia, has left on record a vivid account of his experience. Speaking of the operation he says:—

> Of the agony occasioned I will say nothing. Suffering so great as I underwent cannot be expressed in words, and thus fortunately cannot be recalled. The particular pangs are now forgotten; but the black whirlwind of emotion, the horror of great darkness, and the sense of desertion by God and man, bordering close upon despair, which swept through my mind and overwhelmed my heart, I can never forget, however gladly I would do so. . . . Before the days of anæsthesia a patient preparing for an operation was like a condemned criminal preparing for execution. He counted the days till the appointed day came. He counted the hours of that day till the appointed hour came. He listened for the echo on the street of the surgeon's carriage. He watched for his pull at the door-bell; for his foot on the stairs; for his step in the room; for the production of his dreaded instruments; for his few grave words and his last preparations before beginning. And then he surrendered his liberty, and, revolting at the necessity, submitted to be held or bound, and helplessly gave himself up to the cruel knife. The excitement, disquiet, and exhaustion thus occasioned could not but greatly aggravate the evil effects of the operation, which fell upon a physical frame predisposed to magnify, not to repel, its severity.

The pain caused by operations prevented their being undertaken except as a last resource, and many patients preferred death to the surgeon's knife. Sir Charles Bell used to pass sleepless nights before performing a critical operation; and men like Cheselden, John Hunter, and Abernethy had an almost equal dislike of operations. It is related of one distinguished surgeon that when a patient, whose leg he was about to cut off, suddenly bounced off the operating-table and limped away, he said to the bystanders, "Thank God, he's gone!" Men otherwise well fitted to advance surgery were prevented from devoting themselves to it by their inability to inflict or witness pain. Sir James Young Simpson in his student days was so distressed by the sufferings of a poor Highland woman, on whom Robert Liston was performing excision of the breast in the Edinburgh Royal Infirmary, that he left the operating theatre with his mind made up to seek employment in a lawyer's office. Fortunately for mankind he did not carry out his intention, but set himself to grapple with the problem how sensibility to pain in surgical operations could be abolished.

The solution of the problem was American. On the 30th of September, 1846, W. T. G. Morton, a dentist of Boston, U. S. A., who had previously experimented on animals and on himself, made a man unconscious by breathing sulphuric ether, and extracted a tooth without the patient feeling any pain. On the 16th of October of the same year Morton administered ether, in the Massachusetts General Hospital, to a man from whose neck a growth was excised without a groan or a struggle on his part. The doctors who came to scoff remained to praise, and the operator, Dr. John C. Warren, who had at first been sceptical, said, when all was over, in a tone of conviction, "Gentlemen, this is no humbug!" A distinguished physician who witnessed the scene said on leaving the hospital, "I have seen something to-day that will go round the world." It did so with a rapidity remarkable for those days, when as yet the telegraph was not, and the crossing of the Atlantic was not a trip but a voyage.

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On the 22d of December, 1846, Robert Liston, in University College Hospital, London, performed amputation through the thigh on a man who was under the influence of ether, and who knew nothing of what had been done till he was shown the stump of his limb after the operation. The "Yankee dodge," as Liston had contemptuously called ether anæsthesia before he tried it, was welcomed with enthusiasm by surgeons throughout Europe. In January, 1847, Simpson of Edinburgh, used ether for the relief of the pains of labor. Not being entirely satisfied with it, however, he sought for some other substance having the property of annulling sensation, and in November, 1847, he was able to announce that he had found "a new anæsthetic agent as a substitute for sulphuric ether" in chloroform, a substance then unknown outside the laboratory, and, within it, looked upon as only a chemical curiosity. Chloroform for a long time held the field in Europe as the agent for medicining sufferers to that sweet sleep in which knife, gouge, and cautery do not hurt, and the pangs of motherhood are unfelt.

These feelings were by no means confined to the non-scientific public. There was strong opposition from some surgeons who held that pain was a wholesome stimulus; on this ground the use of chloroform was actually forbidden by the principal medical officer of our army in the Crimea. In childbed, too, pain was declared by one learned obstetrical professor to be "a desirable, salutary, and conservative manifestation of life force;" another denounced the artificial deadening of sensation as "an unnecessary interference with the providentially arranged process of labor;" a third condemned the employment of an anæsthetic "merely to avert the ordinary amount of pain which the Almighty has seen fit — and most wisely, we cannot doubt — to allot to natural labor." The clergy naturally bettered the instructions of these enlightened professors of the art of healing. I need only quote one philanthropic divine, who anathematized chloroform as "a decoy of Satan apparently offering itself to bless women," but "which will harden society, and *rob God of the deep earnest cries which arise in time of trouble for help!*" Simpson answered those fools according to their folly. He quoted scripture to prove that the Almighty himself performed the first operation under anæsthesia, when he cast Adam into a deep sleep before removing his rib. He fought the battle of common sense with such convincing logic and such an overwhelming mass of evidence — chemical, physiological, clinical, and statistical — that he finally shamed his opponents into silence.

It does not fall within the scope of this article to consider the advantages and drawbacks of the various agents that have, at one time or another within the last half-century, been employed as anæsthetics, general or local; or to discuss the dangers attending their use. It need only be said that the ideal anæsthetic — that is to say, one that shall render the patient absolutely insensible to pain while leaving him fully conscious — still remains to be discovered. This is the dream of those — and they are steadily increasing in number — who devote themselves to a special study of the subject; and it would be rash to prophesy that it will not be realized.

Even with its admitted inconveniences and possible risks, however, anæsthesia has not only been in itself an immense step forward, but has been the most powerful factor in the rapid development of surgery during the last fifty years. Without it the marvellous victories of the knife, on which modern surgeons legitimately pride themselves, would have been impossible. Nor is it surgery alone that has been revolutionized by this splendid discovery; medicine, therapeutics, pathology, and physiology — the foundations on which the treatment of disease rests — have all been immensely advanced by it; as without anæsthesia the experiments on animals, to which we owe much of the knowledge that has been acquired, could not possibly have been carried out.

The other chief factor in the modern development of surgery has been the application of the germ theory of putrefaction to the treatment of wounds. It had long been a matter of common observation that very severe injuries were dealt with successfully by the *vis medicatrix naturæ* when the skin was unbroken, whereas open wounds even of a trivial character often festered and not seldom gave rise to blood-poisoning. Thus while a simple fracture of a bone was prac-

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tically certain to heal without trouble, a compound fracture, in which there was a breach of the skin covering the wounded bone, was looked upon as so sure to be followed by evil consequences that immediate amputation of the limb was the rule of surgery in such cases.

The discoveries of Pasteur and his followers furnished a key to these facts. It was shown that the process of putrefaction is a fermentation dependent on the presence of vegetable organisms belonging to the lowest class of fungi. These bacteria, as they may for the sake of convenience be termed collectively, are often present in greater or less abundance in the air; and in places where are many persons with wounds the discharges from which are in a state of decomposition, the atmosphere swarms with these invisible agents of mischief. They find their way into the body through any breach of surface or natural opening, and they are carried into wounds, abscesses, or other cavities by the hands of those who minister to the patient, and by instruments, dressings, clothing, and by water, unless means are used to destroy them. The vital importance of doing this, and the way in which it could be done, were indicated by Joseph Lister, a man who is justly venerated by the whole medical world. His work forms, without excepting even the discovery of anæsthesia, the most conspicuous landmark in surgical progress; indeed, it is no exaggeration to say that the history of surgery now falls by a natural division into two distinct eras: Before Lister and After Lister.

Modern surgery dates from the introduction of the antiseptic treatment of wounds. Thirty years ago the idea was just beginning to settle itself into clearness in the mind in which it was conceived; twenty years ago it was still regarded by many "practical men" as a figment of the scientific imagination; but, as the evidence became irresistible, unbelievers one after another found salvation. Now the doctrine finds virtually universal acceptance. Some years ago, a doctor in Germany was prosecuted and punished for some breach of the antiseptic ordinance in an operation; and though we have not yet reached that perfection of medical discipline in this country, the deliberate and persistent neglect of surgical cleanliness by a member of the staff of a public hospital would be certain to give rise to strong protests on the part of his colleagues.

The cardinal point in Lister's teaching was, that wounds will, in the absence of any disturbing influence, constitutional or accidental, remain sweet and heal kindly, if contamination from without be prevented. The theory is that such contamination is caused by micro-organisms; in practice, it matters nothing whether it is held to be due to germs or to dirt. It is certainly caused by something foreign, something in the nature of what was called by some one "matter in the wrong place;" and this something it is the aim of modern surgery to keep out, whereas to the men of only a generation ago it was an unconsidered trifle. The elaborate ritual of purification by sprays of carbolic acid and the manifold dressings, as complicated as My Uncle Toby's fortifications, by which at first it was sought to exclude the enemy from the living citadel, have been discarded as cumbrous and unnecessary; but whatever change may be made in the details of Listerism, the Listerian principle of safeguarding wounds from every possible source of contamination will stand forever as the foundation-stone of scientific surgery.

The results of the application of the principle are seen in every department of surgical practice. The risks of surgery have been lessened to such an extent that the statistics of most of the greater operations before the antiseptic treatment came into general use are now valueless for purposes of comparison. A few figures will serve to show the difference. Till a comparatively recent period the proportion of cases in which death followed amputation of a limb in the large city hospitals of Great Britain was at least 1 in 3; in a series of 2,089 cases collected by Simpson it was as high as 1 in 2·4. In the Paris hospitals about the middle of the century the death rate after amputation was nearly 1 in 2; in 1861 it was 3 in 5, and a few years later it was estimated at 58 per cent. In Germany and Austria things were not much better; the published statistics of a most skilful surgeon show a proportion of deaths following amputation of 43 to 46 per cent. Nowadays such figures in the practice of any hospital surgeon would probably lead to an inquiry by the proper authorities.

A very large number of these fatalities

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was caused by septic diseases — that is to say, different forms of blood-poisoning due to contamination of the wound, leading to constitutional infection. The terrible frequency of such diseases a few years ago may be judged from the fact that among 631 cases of amputation collected from the returns of some London hospitals between 1866 and 1872, there were 239 deaths; and of those deaths no fewer than 86 were caused by pyæmia, a number of others being due to septicæmia, cellulitis, and erysipelas. Conservative surgery in hospitals was out of the question. Sir Charles Bell has left a vivid description of attempts in that direction in military practice in the pre-antiseptic era: —

> In twelve hours [after the infliction of a gunshot wound of a limb] the inflammation, pain, and tension of the whole limb, the inflamed countenance, the brilliant eye, the sleepless and restless condition, declare the impression the injury is making on the limb and on the constitutional powers. In six days the limb from the groin to the toe, or from the shoulder to the finger, is swollen to half the size of the body; a violent phlegmonous inflammation pervades the whole; serous effusion has taken place in the whole limb; and abscesses are forming in the great beds of cellular texture throughout the whole extent of the extremity. In three months, if the patient have labored through the agony, the bones are carious; the abscesses are interminable sinuses; the limb is undermined and everywhere unsound; and the constitutional strength ebbs to the lowest degree.

It was no wonder, therefore, that military surgeons as late as in the Crimean War [in 1854–5] went largely by "the good old rule, the simple plan" of amputating for all wounds of the limbs involving injury to bone at once, "while the soldier was in mettle." In recent wars, by the use of antiseptic "first field dressings," and by subsequent treatment with jealous regard for surgical cleanliness, it has been found possible to save a large proportion of limbs. In civil hospitals pyæmia is now almost unknown, and hospital gangrene, formerly a justly dreaded scourge, is extinct.

As illustrations of the improvement which has taken place in the results of amputations it need only be mentioned that the average mortality rate after amputations in a London hospital, which from a structural and sanitary point of view leaves much to be desired, fell from 27 in 1871 to about 11 in 1890. Of 687 cases of amputation performed in an hospital in the north of England from 1878 to 1891 there was only 8 per cent. of deaths; in the uncomplicated cases, taken separately, the mortality rate was no more than 4 per cent. In a series of cases operated on by several German surgeons of the first rank, in the pre-Listerian era, the average death rate was between 38 and 39 per cent.; in a corresponding series, in which the antiseptic method was used, the mortality was 17 per cent. I have taken these statistics because they happen to be ready to my hand. A more brilliant array of figures in favor of the antiseptic treatment could, I have no doubt, be made by careful selection of cases. The facts which I have quoted, however, probably represent the plain truth.

In the operation for the radical cure of hernia the results have been even more striking. Twenty years ago this procedure was on account of its fatality considered to be almost outside the pale of legitimate surgery; now it is one of the most successful of operations. One English surgeon has performed it seventy-two times, with two deaths; another 137 times, with five deaths. An Italian operator has a record of 262 cases, with one death; a French surgeon one of 376, with two deaths. Quite recently an American surgeon has reported a series of 360 antiseptic operations for the radical cure of hernia, with only one death; and in that case the fatal result was found to be due, not to the surgical procedure, but to the anæsthetic. In the operative treatment of cancer of the breast Lord Lister's disciple, Professor Watson Cheyne, not long ago published a series of cases showing a measure of success in dealing with that formidable affection altogether unparalleled. Taking the received limit of three years without recurrence of the disease as the standard, he has been able to show a result of not less that 57 per cent. of cures. Old statistics give the proportion of "cures" after these operations as 5 per cent., and even ten or twelve years ago it was no higher than 12 or 15 per cent.

Part of Mr. Cheyne's remarkable success is doubtless due to his very thorough removal of the disease; but when due allowance is made for this, a large part remains to be placed to the credit of the antiseptic treatment as making such drastic measures feasible. It may here

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be stated that, generally speaking, operations for cancer are more successful now than they were formerly; this is due not only to the rigid observance of surgical cleanliness, but to a better understanding, and in particular an earlier recognition, of the disease, which gives the surgeon the opportunity of interfering while there is yet time to prevent its spreading.

In no department of surgery has greater progress been made than in the treatment of diseases of the abdominal organs, and here, too, the way was prepared, and the advance has been powerfully helped, by the doctrine of surgical cleanliness. The development of abdominal surgery is, however, directly due to the late Sir Spencer Wells more than to any other man. Wells began his professional career as a surgeon in the navy, and during the Crimean War he had apportunities of seeing men recover from injuries caused by shot and shell which, according to the canons of surgery then generally received, ought to have proved fatal. Till that time and for several years afterwards surgeons had an almost superstitious dread of wounding or handling the peritoneum, the membrane which invests the organs contained within the abdomen. Wells saw, as others had seen, men who had been stabbed in the abdomen so that their bowels gushed out brought to the hospital where their intestines were washed and replaced, and the wound stitched up, and in a short time all was well again. He, however, saw what others had not seen — namely, the true significance of these facts. They taught him that the peritoneum was much more tolerant than it was believed to be, and in particular that a clean incised wound of that membrane was as simple a matter and as free from danger as a like wound of any other tissue.

This simple observation had far-reaching consequences. Wells took upon himself the task of bringing the operation of ovariotomy, which, owing to its terrible fatality, had fallen into utter discredit, within the sphere of orthodox surgery. Not long before he turned his attention to the subject, a well-known surgeon had been threatened by a colleague with a coroner's inquest on any patient of his that should die after the operation. Wells's first ovariotomy was performed in 1858, and the patient recovered. During the ensuing six years he operated 100 times, with thirty-four deaths — a rate of mortality that would now be thought appalling. He succeeded, however, in placing the operation on a firm basis, and as he gained experience he perfected his procedure, so that his mortality rate fell steadily till it almost reached the vanishing-point. It has been estimated that by this particular operation alone he added ten thousand years in the aggregate to the lives of women who had the benefit of his skill. By his teaching and example, moreover, he did much more than this. He proved that the abdomen could, with proper precautions, be opened freely without fear, and thus laid the foundations of abdominal surgery in its modern development.

The success of ovariotomy opened men's eyes to the feasibility of operations on other abdominal organs, and to the possibility of dealing with injuries which before were believed to be beyond the resources of surgical art. Soon the peritoneum, which had aforetime been held in such awe, came to be treated with familiarity — sometimes, it is to be feared, with contempt. One celebrated operator is said to have declared that he thought no more of opening the peritoneum than of putting his hand into his pocket. At the present time no abdominal organ is sacred from the surgeon's knife. Bowels riddled with bullet-holes are stitched up successfully; large pieces of gangrenous or cancerous intestine are cut out, the ends of the severed tube being brought into continuity by means of ingenious appliances; the stomach is opened for the removal of a foreign body, for the excision of a cancer, or for the administration of nourishment to a patient unable to swallow; stones are extracted from the substance of the kidneys, and these organs when hopelessly diseased are extirpated; the spleen, when enlarged or otherwise diseased, is removed bodily; gall stones are cut out, and even tumors of the liver are excised. The kidney, the spleen, and the liver, when they cause trouble by unnatural mobility, are anchored by stitches to the abdominal wall; and the stomach has been dealt with successfully in the same way for the cure of indigestion. Besides all this, many cases of obstruction of the bowels, which in days

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not very long gone by would have been doomed to inevitable death, are now cured by a touch of the surgeon's knife. The perforation of the intestine, which is one of the most formidable complications of typhoid fever, has in a few cases been successfully closed by operation; and inflammation of the peritoneum, caused by the growth of tuberculous masses upon it, has been apparently cured by opening the abdominal cavity.

Among the most useful advances of this department of surgery must be accounted the treatment of the condition known as "appendicitis," which has been to a large extent rescued from the physician, with his policy of *laisser faire*, and placed under the more resolute and more efficient government of the surgeon. A New York surgeon not long ago reported a series of 100 cases of operation for appendicitis, with only two deaths. In the development of the surgery of the appendix and the intestine generally, a prominent part has been taken by Mr. Frederick Treves, whose researches on the anatomy of the abdomen shed a new light on a region that was thought to offer no room for further investigation, and thus showed the way to new methods of dealing with its diseases. To him, Mr. Lawson Tait, Mr. Harrison Cripps, and Mr. Mayo Robson in England; to Czerny and Wölfler in Germany; and to Senn and Murphy in America, it is largely owing that the abdomen, which but a few years ago was the territory of the physician, has been transferred to the surgeon — to the great advantage of mankind.

MALCOLM MORRIS, F.R.S.C.

(*To be concluded in our next.*)

PRETERNATURAL SUSPICION IN NATIONS

THE fundamental characteristics of a nation are never obliterated. They may be modified in the course of ages but they are never destroyed. That is the thought, observes a writer in the London "Spectator," which leaps instinctively to the mind when one reads about the Dreyfus case which is now agitating France. It is in its psychological aspects that the case interests us, for it reveals once more that singular mental habit which has for centuries been characteristic of the French people, and which came to an unequalled climax in the Revolution, the habit of universal suspicion, which cannot be allayed, and which hurries the nation from one tragedy to another,— the tragedy, however, being generally relieved by a vein of comedy not the less amusing because the French, who are foremost in wit, but comparatively deficient in humor, are quite unable to see the comic side. We are, indeed, tempted to ask at the outset whether suspicion be not a quality entirely divorced from humor. The Americans are perhaps the most humorous of all civilized peoples, and it might be said that it would have been a good thing for them at certain crises of their history— for instance, when the Northern arsenals were being drained of their troops and ammunition just before the Civil War — had they been a little less good-humored and a trifle more suspicious.

At all the great crises of French life the element of preternatural suspicion has played an important part. . . . Louis Napoleon lived in an atmosphere of intrigue and suspicion from the day he was elected President to the day when, sad and broken, he was induced to decide for war and ruin. The quality lies deep in French national character, and it must have a cause or causes. Those causes, too, must either lie in deep-seated racial factors, or must have arisen in the course of national evolution. We believe it has been produced by both factors, though we admit it is not easy to trace its lines of growth. In the contrast between the Celtic and the Teutonic tribes will probably be found a partial explanation of the problem. While the Teutons appear to have developed what the Germans call a *gemüthlich* character, or a certain deep feeling which expresses itself in loyalty, comradeship, the Celtic tribes developed *esprit*, clear analytic intelligence, more powerful to dissolve than to construct. Thus, while France loosened the old bonds, shattered the old feudal strongholds, and proclaimed democracy and a gospel of individual "rights," it was reserved for Germany to resuscitate patriotism, and to discover or construct a rational basis for historic institutions. And as each nation has the defects of its qualities, we find suspicion as the necessary complement of a too great devotion to analysis. There is another and more obvious explanation, —the tendency in France to despotism to the magnifying of the State, which, however, has generally been expressed through some potent personality, whether under Monarchy, or a Republic. Despotism means secrecy, and secrecy means suspicion. Suspicions about the sentence on Dreyfus may overthrow a Constitution.

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SELF CULTURE

A MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE

With Departments Devoted to the Interests of The Home University League.

Every person has two educations; one which he receives from others, and one, more important, which he gives to himself.—GIBBON.

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G. MERCER ADAM, EDITOR
HOWARD P. RUGGLES, BUSINESS MANAGER

THE DREYFUS CASE It would seem that France is never really happy save when she is in a welter of excitement. The frenzy into which Paris, and, indeed, all parts of France, has been cast by the Dreyfus affair is typical of all French tumults — the utter abandonment of restraint, and the plunging into a vortex of seething passions, under any unusual provocation, particularly when such appears to reflect upon the honor of the country or upon the prestige and glory of its arms. In this national tendency to mount a perch and either scream or crow, the French are but too apt to indulge; and even where there is a public scandal, which demands calm and serious probing to get at its enormities and "to visit sin upon the sin-doer," there seems to be an entire inability to treat the matter sanely and without hysterical passion.

A more serious manifestation, however, of the present-day bent of the national character appears in the degeneracy of political parties; in the rivalries of ambitious individuals in the Republic for position and fame, however questionable the means by which these may be secured; and in the insidious tampering, as in the Panama revelations, with legislative honor and independence by interested monetary corporations. To these impeachments of the nation's good name and repute, there are to be added, as facts admitted and lamented by native censors, a widespread lack of principle in financial and commercial dealings; the scandal of a venal and extremely partisan press; a systematic espionage which infects many branches of the national service and undermines integrity; the absence of any high tone in army circles and of that confidence and sense of security between ranks and classes in the profession of arms which best ensures discipline and encourages *esprit de corps;* a tolerance of the petty arts made use of to injure reputations by those who aspire to high posts in the civil or military service; and an unscrupulous use of the means — racial, religious, and social — by which they may obtain them. These, we are aware, are grave indictments, but they are warranted by facts which have come recently to light and which lower the standard of the national character.

To make valid the above indictment, which we regret to have to pen of a once great and gallant nation, we have only to quote what was said the other day by a thoroughly independent though somewhat austere Parisian weekly, touching the low character and greed for money which marks the contemporary French press. According to this authority (the "Revue Bleue"), the newspapers of the capital, so far from fulfilling their mission as conservators of public morals, debauch and lower the tone of political, civic, and social life, indulge in reckless calumny and defamation, live by blackmail and vile threats, and "by their reports of judicial proceedings, and the imagination of those who write the nation's fiction, recruit and instruct the growing army of young criminals."

This, it will be noted, is an inside opinion of a large section of the Paris press, which it is painful to read, and more painful to know that it is only half the truth — as any one may gather from the scandalous disclosures in connection with the Panama Canal affair, and the attitude of the chief Parisian journals towards the Dreyfus case. If venality is not to be laid to the charge of these pestilential journals in the latter case, they are guilty of crime no less heinous in inciting racial and religious passions, and stirring up the populace to an anti-Semitic crusade, since the unhappy Dreyfus is a Jew, and the clamor against him, is in part at least, maintained on account of his alien faith.

That we may discuss the matter more intelligibly with the readers of SELF CULTURE, it will be helpful to recall, first, who Dreyfus is; secondly, to state briefly for what alleged crime he was tried, condemned, and deported from France; and, thirdly, to set forth the train of circumstances that has led to the present

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frenzied discussion, a recrudescence (to use the newspaper phrase denoting its renewed soreness) of the whole matter. The facts of the case are concisely as follows: —

Alfred Dreyfus, an Alsatian Jew, was, up to the year 1894, a captain of engineers in the French army, and held high position on the General Staff. About the middle of October, in the year named, he was arrested on a charge of treason, secretly tried by court-martial, convicted, and publicly degraded. He was then sent off to a lonely convict station (Ile du Diable), on the coast of French Guinea, where he still remains, closely guarded, and, it is said, in shackles. The ostensible charge against Dreyfus was that he had sold military information to a foreign government. The chief evidence in support of the grave accusation was a compromising document stated to have been found in the waste-basket of the German Embassy in Paris, which was alleged, though not conclusively proved, to be in the handwriting of the incriminated officer. The arrest, trial, conviction, degradation from his rank in the army, and deportation to a penal colony, it would seem, were wholly unwarranted, and, in fact, despotic acts. A grave judicial error appears to have been committed. There was little upon which to base so serious a charge, save the mere supposition by experts in handwriting, who of course might be entirely astray in their judgment, that the document said to have been found in the German Embassy incriminated Dreyfus.

Nor is this all, for the German minister in Paris has stated that no such document, or *bordereau*, as it is called, could have been found at the Embassy. He, moreover, desired to testify, but was refused permission at the preliminary inquiry, that he knew nothing of Dreyfus and had had no communication whatever with or from him. Further circumstances have to be noted, which throw doubt upon the *bona fides* of the trial, and give occasion for the widespread suspicion among fair-minded Frenchmen that the officer in question was either the victim of jealousy, and possibly of hatred on account of his Jewish faith, or was cruelly made the scapegoat for someone else's perfidy. We refer to the fact that not only was the trial conducted with closed doors, and before those who seem to have been insanely prejudiced against Dreyfus, but that neither he nor his counsel saw or was informed of the evidence on which the unfortunate officer was convicted. Moreover, it is known that the victim of his anonymous accusers and of his irregularly governed judges had no ostensible motive for committing the crime, since he was well off, of good family, and though a Jew and an Alsatian, had a good record both as a gentleman and a soldier.

The trial was so manifestly unfair, and the doomed officer was so conscious of his innocence, that his family and friends took up the case and have since been working, though with little avail and against great and unreasoning prejudice, to get the affair reopened and the judgment reversed. A brother of the condemned officer, upon what evidence does not seem to have transpired, accused a Major Esterhazy of the crime for which Captain Dreyfus was punished, and his trial, which lately took place in Paris, and appears to have been conducted also with closed doors, resulted in Esterhazy's acquittal. With the irregular methods of procedure at these military investigations, acquittal, morally, proves nothing, though in the highly prejudiced and inflammable condition of the public mind at present in France the acquittal of Esterhazy is taken as an endorsement of the finding of the court upon Dreyfus. The whole case is a most lamentable one and appears to be a gross perversion of justice. It is all the more this since neither the French war office nor the government has the courage, in face of the prevailing anti-Semitic passion, to order a re-trial of Dreyfus, and so justify, in a public court, the convict's guilt or establish his innocence.

With the intruding upon the scene in the Dreyfus interest of M. Émile Zola, the novelist, the case has arrived at its acutest, and, for all concerned, its most embarrassing, stage. In an open letter to the President of the Republic, M. Zola vehemently attacked the military administration for its conviction of Dreyfus and its acquittal of Esterhazy, and charged all and sundry with conspiring to ruin an innocent man, and scandalously to screen the real culprit. So fierce and outspoken was his arraign-

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ment of all who had to do with the conspiracy against Dreyfus, from the Minister of War down to the Colonel who is supposed to have infamously made a scapegoat of the convicted officer, that the Legislature, the Paris press, and almost the whole of France went into convulsions over the matter, from which there is little sign of their even now emerging. So revolutionary was the tone of M. Zola's letter, and so heroically did he champion the cause of the cruelly treated Jewish officer, that the government was forced to prosecute him, and his trial, as we write, is still in progress. The chances of the novelist proving the innocence of M. Dreyfus is slim indeed, since the military men subpœnaed at the trial refuse to be interrogated on vital points by the defence, and are upheld in their contumacy by the court, by the military law, and, tacitly, by the government and the partisans, claqueurs, and Jew-hating masses of the army. This action, it need hardly be remarked, is not only a further defiance of justice, but it places the French authorities, and, indeed, the nation at large, in a very scandalous light.

Sympathy with France in her desire to conserve the honor of her army no one, no soldier at least, can withhold; but it is difficult to feel this sympathy when frenzied efforts are resorted to to shield culprits, screen rottenness, and conceal a crime. Nor can military virtues be sustained, far less lauded, when social injustice is notoriously done to a Jew, because he is a Jew, and when contumely is poured by the entire nation upon the Hebrew race. This is the least august aspect in which the army of France presents itself to the world, and it is an aspect that betokens a grave declension in the national character. Nor is the citizen less criminal and rancorous than the soldier towards the unhappy Jew, as the inflamed talk of the streets and the placards calling for a rising against the Hebrew race, bear witness. This is the most deplorable feature in the present trial, since the attitude of the populace is not only criminal in a high degree, but encourages appeals to passion and prejudice instead of to sobriety and reason. We may regret that the Jew, in great measure, refuses to identify himself as a citizen and patriot with the nations among whom he resides and whose bread he eats, but that is no reason for persecuting, or even for ostracizing him, since he so chooses to cherish the distinctions and lofty traditions of his race. What M. Zola may accomplish in dragging the whole outrage, if he can, into the light of day, it would be difficult just yet to say. The strongest witness he has so far had, on his own and the Dreyfus side, is Colonel Picquart, whose testimony, given with frank and fearless sincerity, was most damaging to his superior officers and to the prosecution. It will be well for France if her authorities unflinchingly stand by the right, and, whatever betide, see only that justice is done.

The trial, however it may end and whatever it may disclose, proves how antiquated and farcical are French modes of justice, and how capable of abuse is the privilege of withholding testimony, for so-called state or military reasons. Under such a system, any real defence of the accused is impossible, and prosecution by the government is a species of inquisition. At the present trial hardly any valid exculpatory evidence has, so far, been admitted, while the presiding judge has shown a most reprehensible anxiety to shield the military department, for the illegality of its trial and condemnation of Dreyfus, as well as to balk M. Zola's counsel in his efforts to elicit important testimony. All this, added to the scandalous scenes which have been permitted to be enacted in court, have tended to make the trial throughout a mockery of justice; and at the same time defeat the praiseworthy attempt to rehabilitate what would appear to be an innocent and outrageously abused man.

* * *

THE LOSS OF THE "MAINE" The news of the loss of the battleship "Maine," in Havana harbor on the evening of the 15th ult., fell upon the ear with the crushing force of a national calamity. True, the cyclopean bulk and weight and the formidable armaments of these modern ironclads prepare one, as did not the graceful wooden frigates and the milder missiles of former days, for sudden and awful mishap. Especially is this the case when we take into account the character of the chemical compounds, high explosives, and other scientific agents of destruction which are the product of the age. The enginery on land and sea of modern war

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is now so appalling that those whose business it is to handle it have to encounter tremendous peril; while the substitution of steel and iron for timber in the construction of warships shows us, by the occurrence of a time even of peace, what formidable risks must be run by the navy in a time of war. Admiral Farragut's alleged aversion to the transfer of his flag to an ironclad may be readily understood — if the story is not apocryphal — when he said "that he did not want to go to Hades in a teakettle." Not to Hades but to Elysium, in something like a "teakettle" many of the gallant seamen in our naval service are in danger of going, and this though no war-cloud menaces, when their patriotism leads them to find their life's vocation on board an ironclad. The fact is not stated to deter any one from entering the service, but rather to remind the home-stayer of the risks run and the sacrifices that must be made by those who see the path of duty in the active service of the nation, either on land or afloat.

Sea-power is gained at a heavy cost by the construction and maintainance of such vessels and armaments as modern nations now proudly array against each other. At a still heavier cost is it gained when aggression or accident involves the sacrifice of so many valued seamen as have just paid a sadly involuntary tribute to duty, at their lives' cost, on board the "Maine." The horrors of that most pitiful disaster may well rend the nation's heart and excite the dismay and active sympathies of a compassionate world. To whatever cause the catastrophe is due — and at this writing nothing definite is known in regard to this — there is no heart throughout the Republic that is not profoundly touched by the calamity or fails to commiserate the fate of so many brave men. It is a peculiarly unfortunate circumstance for Spain and her people that the dire mishap occurred in Spanish waters. But despite the sinister attempt in some evil-disposed quarters to trace the disaster to Spanish or insurgent hostility, it is most gratifying to see how great and unquestionably sincere is Spanish distress over the calamitous occurrence and how helpful, as well as ready, have been Spanish sympathy and succor. Nor can doubt for a moment be cast on the good faith of the Queen Regent and Government of the Spanish motherland, in the expressions of condolence forwarded to the authorities at Washington, and in the offer of every aid in their power to facilitate inquiry into the causes of the occurrence.

Some explanation of the latter may be found in the fact that the harbor of Havana was, for defensive purposes, honeycombed with mines and torpedoes. But beyond this, as a probable and inadvertent cause of the fell occurrence, we may not look outside the "Maine" itself for facts that shall throw light upon the misadventure to the unfortunate warship. To Captain Sigsbee, its able and right-feeling commander, this is the idea that seems instantly to have occurred, and to which, after realizing the extent of the injury to his noble vessel, he circumspectly gave expression in his cabled despatches to Washington. It is the idea that also happily occurred to the President, and to which, with rare restraint and good sense, he has given utterance alike in his earliest and his latest reported comment on the calamity. That time will prove the correctness of these judgments, all who have not lost their heads over the matter will sincerely hope, and this in the interest not only of the public well-being, but, paramountly, in the interest of international harmony and peace.

* * *

STRAINED RELATIONS WITH SPAIN

It cannot be doubted that the situation in Spain and in its luckless Cuban dependency is bad and promises trouble. We say this entirely aside from the question of the wreck of the "Maine," since we cannot believe Spain or her terribly desolated colony culpable in respect of the national misfortune that has befallen us, at least on any evidence that has so far come to light. Nor have we at present in mind the effect on the public opinion of this country of the grave indiscretion (to use a mild expression) of which the late Spanish minister at Washington was guilty in his rifled "personal" letter to Señor Canalejas, which no eye but one had any right to see or know anything about. We are viewing the situation with regard to Spain entirely apart from both of these incidents, however calamitous was the one and irritating, and in a sense insulting, was the other. It is the restricted, but general,

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aspect of the relations of this country with Spain which we have in view, and which we fear has become strained, and possibly may become more so in the immediate future, unless a check is wisely placed upon the rising war-feeling in Jingo and journalistic circles of the Jingo type, both in Spain and in this country, arising out of the continued distressing situation in Cuba.

After these years of inhuman conflict, that the Spanish power, in the exercise of its dominion over the pearl of the Antilles, is to-day any nearer the accomplishment of its purposes on the unhappy island, or may soon be expected to bring the insurgent Cubans under subjection, no one, save a Spanish imperialist, can well believe. Neither has pacification come to the colony from any overtures from Madrid, nor is it likely to come now, after the fierce and protracted struggle that has taken place, even if Cuba could trust Spain to hold out, with any hope of acceptance, the olive branch. A change of captains-general, with the offer of some measure of autonomy, were false hopes; while the "something great" that was to be done, either by force of arms or by diplomatic manœuvring, has, as we expected, come to naught. The distress of the colony becomes daily more acute, and has been direfully aggravated by the recent rainy season and the infamous burning, by the conqueror in name only, of the crops and hoarded stores of the patriot insurgents. All this, with a forlorn and desolate outlook, have been stubbornly borne with, rather than that an iota should be surrendered of Cuban claims for freedom, with absolute independence.

Meantime, our people, though in the main reasonable and generally docile, have come, it is to be feared, to the end of imposed non-intervention, and the nation feels that it has arrived at the limit, hinted by the President in his Message to Congress, of the period when Cuba must be pacified. Spain obviously knows this, and Congress is manifestly restless in the matter, and expresses itself already in a bellicose mood. Just here the situation becomes perplexing, and the imperious need arises for a firm, controlling, and wisely restraining hand to avert war, or any outbreak that may unhappily lead to that calamity. In the emergency, the duty of all is to be cool, and to trust the discretion of the President and the wisdom of the Government, and to frown upon any attempt, journalistic or political, to inflame the war-spirit or do aught that shall embroil the nation in a matter not imperatively ours to interfere with. On humanitarian, as well as on commercial grounds, to enable the Cubans to purchase their independence, as has already been suggested, may be a pacific mode of ending the trouble; but whatever solution of the problem comes, let no one who loves his country, its people, and its honor, force a war, or place the nation in any false and compromising position.

* * *

DEATH OF FRANCES E. WILLARD

The lamented death, at New York on the 18th ult., of the founder and first President of the World's Woman's Christian Temperance Union, and the editor of the "Union Signal," the official organ of the "White Ribbon" purity movement, removes one of the most successful and earnest workers for good in our day. Miss Willard's career as a reformer began twenty years ago in connection with an earlier American Woman's Temperance movement, of which she was for some years the inspiring and active, directing head. Previous to that she was engaged in higher educational work for her sex, and for long was Dean of the Woman's College at Evanston, Ill., the success of which owes much to her indefatigable and self-sacrificing labors. It was her temperance crusading that chiefly, however, enlisted her energies in later life, and into which she threw her whole soul, with organizing qualities and a mental and physical power of a remarkable kind. The impetus of the movement for which she so assiduously and earnestly labored has been felt round the world, and almost incalculable is the good she thus accomplished. The headquarters of the American movement is the great edifice of the Woman's Temple Building, Chicago, which, with rare fitness, it is proposed to re-christen as a Willard Memorial, so soon at least as the debt upon it is lifted. The death of Miss Willard, which must direct public attention anew to her beautiful character and her untiring and unselfish work, ought to incite wealthy philanthropists at once to remove the incumbrance.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Tuesday, January 4.—Several persons have written to Commissioner Evans asking that their pensions be cancelled, rather than have their names published....Dr. Schenk, of Vienna, is reported to have discovered the secret of exercising an influence over animals and men so as to fix the sex of their offspring....The total number of persons killed by the fall of a floor of the London (Ont.) city hall on Monday night was twenty-five....The Marquis Ito is forming a new Japanese cabinet....It is reported that gold deposits of great richness have been found in Labrador.

Wednesday, January 5.—The President nominated Charles Page Bryan, of Illinois, to be minister to China, and Owen L. W. Smith, of North Carolina, to be minister to Liberia....Despatches from Pekin announce that the Chinese government has ceded Kiao-Chow bay to Germany for an indefinite period....J. McLeavy Brown, the British Korean custom agent at Seoul, maintains his post, in spite of Russia's efforts to displace him.

Thursday, January 6.—The United States treasury received $847,000 in $100 silver certificates for retirement under Secretary Gage's order....Roger Wolcott took the oath of office as Governor of Massachusetts at Boston for the second term before a joint convention of the Legislature....It is reported that the British government has arranged to guarantee the Chinese loan of $80,000,000, the price of issue to be par; the concessions required, it is said, will be the opening of new treaty ports, open to all nations alike....Prince Albert Leopold, the heir presumptive to the Belgian throne, will make a tour of the United States and Canada.

Friday, January 7.—The Federation of Labor urges Congress to enact an eight-hour work day on all public works, and to place restrictions on convict labor and the use of the injunction....William Henry Theodore Durrant was hanged at San Quentin prison, Cal., for the murder of Blanch Lamont....A rich deposit of platinum is said to have been discovered in Jack county, Texas....England will lend China £16,000,000 direct, without the issue of a guaranty loan....The governments of Russia and of Japan have formally recognized the imperial title of the Emperor of Korea.

Saturday, January 8.—Secretary Sherman issued a proclamation appealing for aid for the suffering Cubans, and announcing the appointment of a central relief committee....The revelations in the New York dry dock scandal have aroused great interest....Gen. William Booth, the head of the Salvation army, sailed from Southampton for New York.

Sunday, January 9.—Thomas A. Edison is said to have discovered a new metal or alloy, which, admixed with iron, renders cast iron as tough and strong as wrought iron....It is reported that England, Japan, and Russia have arrived at an agreement respecting Korea, and that the British fleet is returning to Hongkong....The first distribution of American supplies for the starving Cubans took place at Havana.

Monday, January 10.—The inauguration of Governor Bushnell took place at Columbus, Ohio; a mass convention of Republicans issued a strong appeal in behalf of Mr. Hanna....The trial of Count Esterhazy, who is accused of writing letters in the "Figaro" reflecting on France and the French army, was begun in Paris....Arthur J. Balfour, government leader in the House of Commons, said in a speech to his constituents at Manchester that England's policy in China would be to preserve trade rather than to gain territory.

Tuesday, January 11.—Senator Mark A. Hanna received a majority of the votes cast in the separate houses of the Ohio Legislature... Hon. Charles W. Russell, of the department of justice, says that there are 200,000 reconcentrados in Cuba suffering and dying from diseases....Count Ferdinand Walsin Esterhazy, of the French army, was acquitted of the charge of having had dealings with a foreign power or its agents.

Wednesday, January 12.—M. A. Hanna was elected senator for both the short and long terms by the Ohio Legislature in joint assembly....President McKinley transferred Edwin H. Conger, now minister to Brazil, to the Chinese mission, and nominated Charles Page Bryan for minister to Brazil....General Gonzales Nunoz, the new captain-general of Porto Rico, died immediately after his arrival at the island....A new Japanese cabinet has been completed, with the Marquis Ito as premier....A filibustering vessel was captured off the southern coast of Cuba by a Spanish gunboat....There was rioting in Havana.

Thursday, January 13.—The Secretary of the Navy has recommended an increase in the force of enlisted men in the navy by 1,000, and an increase of the apprentices in the navy by 700.... No warships will be sent to Havana at present to protect American interests....President Dole, of the Hawaiian islands, is on the way to Washington to consult with the administration on the subject of the annexation of the islands....In the French chamber of deputies Premier Meline stated that the government had decided to prosecute M. Zola for charges made in an open letter to President Faure....The parliamentary election held at Plymouth resulted in the return of S. F. Mendle, Liberal....Lord Charles Beresford, Conservative and Liberal-Unionist, was elected to Parliament from York.

Friday, January 14.—President McKinley sent a message to Congress urging prompt paymant of the Canadian Bering sea claims....The Hawaiian minister in Washington explained the objects of President Dole's visit to the United States....Reassuring news was received in Washington regarding the situation in Havana.

Saturday, January 15.—Customs receipts so far this month show a large increase over those for December....Captain Oberlin M. Carter, the army engineer officer now on trial before a court-martial in Savannah, is accused by the war department of conspiracy to defraud the government out of nearly $3,000,000....M. Cambon, the new French ambassador to the United States, was received by President McKinley.

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Sunday, January 16.—Hon. Benjamin Butterworth, United States commissioner of patents, died at Thomasville, Georgia....Logan Carlisle, son of ex-Secretary of the Treasury Carlisle, died in New York... Students in Paris broke the windows of a house which was mistaken for Zola's....Right Hon. Charles Pelham Villiers, known as the "Father of the House of Commons," having sat continuously in the house since 1835, died in London.

Monday, January 17.—A reduction of from 5 to 12 per cent. in wages caused strikes in many of the New England cotton mills ...President Dole, of Hawaii, landed at San Francisco; Mr. Dole said he did not come here to lobby for annexation, but was ready to give information to the government when called upon....The French and Russian ministers have protested against England's conditions in the Chinese loan proposal.

Tuesday, January 18.—There is every prospect of a long struggle by the striking cotton mill workers in New England....In the Maryland senatorial contest, the vote for the leaders stood 34 for McComas (Rep.), 42 for Gorman (Dem.)....Great Britain has again declined to accede to the request of the United States to reopen the sealing question....Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's declaration that England will fight rather than be shut out of the China trade is heartily approved....General Billot, French minister of war, has lodged a formal complaint against Émile Zola....A despatch received at the Chinese legation in Washington announces that the Chinese government has reached a settlement with Germany .. Signor Nicolini, husband of Adelina Patti, the opera singer, died in Pau, France.

Wednesday, January 19.—President McKinley held his first official reception at the White House....Secretary of the Navy Long appeared before the Senate committee on naval affairs and recommended that he be permitted to enter into a contract with private firms to supply armor for the "Illinois," "Alabama," and "Wisconsin" at $400 a ton....President Dole, of Hawaii, left San Francisco for Washington....Anti-Semite demonstrations were renewed in Paris and at Marseilles and other provincial towns in France....Rev. Henry George Liddell, former dean of Christ Church, Oxford, England, is dead; aged 86.

Thursday, January 20.—The President has nominated R. Butler Mahone, a son of the late Senator Mahone, of Virginia, to be United States consul at Nuevo Laredo, Mexico....The Iowa House of Representatives has passed a joint resolution requesting Senators Allison and Gear to vote for the Hawaiian annexation treaty; the vote was 54 to 40....The Japanese cruiser "Kasagi" was launched at Cramp & Sons' shipyard, Philadelphia....Count Posadowsky, minister for the interior, in a speech in the Reichstag, asserted that socialism would never attain its ends in Germany, where the monarchical and dynastic sentiment is too deeply rooted.

Friday, January 21.—The cabinet decided that no changes in the administration's Cuban policy was necessary....Negotiations for a reciprocity treaty with France were resumed by M. Cambon, the new French ambassador, and Commissioner Kasson....The nomination of Attorney-General McKenna to be a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States was confirmed by the Senate....It is semi-officially announced in Berlin that Germany will not object to the appointment of Prince George of Greece as Governor of the Island of Crete, "provided the other powers unanimously consent"....The bill providing for the issue of currency notes in India against gold was adopted by the India council....A strong fleet of Japanese war vessels has been ordered to Chinese waters.

Saturday, January 22.—President McKinley sent to the Senate the nomination of Governor John W. Griggs of New Jersey for attorney-general, to succeed Mr. McKenna....President Dole gave his views on the condition of affairs in Hawaii and the prospects of annexation.... A riot resulted from the debate on the Dreyfus case in the French chamber of deputies; the lobbies of the house were filled with troops and the sitting was suspended....The condition of Mr. Gladstone, who is at Cannes, France, is again described as alarming....Perfect weather in India permitted the securing of valuable scientific results of the solar eclipse.

Sunday, January 23.—President Dole arrived in Chicago, and was cordially welcomed by representatives of the government and the city. ....Martial law was proclaimed at Fort Yukon, and the soldiers protected a warehouse of an Alaska trading company from an attacking party of 150 miners....Fierce anti-Jewish riots, in which two persons were killed, took place in Algiers....In Paris, anti-Dreyfus disturbances were prevented by stringent precautions.... The solar eclipse in India caused native astrologers to predict terrible calamities.

Monday, January 24.—The battleship "Maine" was ordered to Havana; the administration's purpose was officially announced to be merely the resumption of friendly naval relations with Spain....President McKinley nominated Charles H. Duell for commissioner of patents, and George E. Roberts for director of the mint. .....Baron von Bulow declared before the budget committee of the Reichstag that no relations had existed between Dreyfus and German representatives.

Tuesday, January 25.—The Senate has confirmed the nomination of J. W. Griggs, of New Jersey, to be attorney-general of the United States....The national association of manufacturers began its annual convention in New York....The national monetary convention met at Indianapolis to demand currency reform by Congress; about 400 delegates were present ....Russia has offered China a loan on the same terms as England offered....The United States battleship "Maine" arrived at Havana and was saluted by the forts and war vessels ....John Laird, of Birkenhead, England, who built the "Alabama," is dead.

Wednesday, January 26.—Justice McKenna took his seat as a member of the United States Supreme Court....President Dole, of Hawaii, arrived in Washington; President McKinley promptly called upon him; the Hawaiian executive is the guest of the nation....The Austro-Hungarian ambassador and the American

minister have demanded redress from the porte for wrongs done by the Turkish authorities at Aleppo to the American consul there, who is an Austrian subject.... A German cruiser and a British warship arrived at Havana; the Spanish government has decided to send the battleship "Vizcaya," a larger vessel than the "Maine," to visit United States ports.

Thursday, January 27.—President McKinley spoke at the dinner of the national association of manufacturers at New York and strongly emphasized the need of currency reform.. A majority of the striking British engineers have voted to accept the terms of the employers.... The birthday of Emperor William was more generally celebrated than usual in Germany.... Nestor Aranguren, the insurgent brigadier, was surprised and killed and his body taken to Havana; it was Aranguren who executed Col. Joaquin Ruiz, of General Blanco's staff, who went to his camp with terms of surrender.... The Spanish fleet has been ordered to concentrate at Cadiz.

Friday, January 28.—The Senate passed the Teller resolution, providing for the payment of bonds in silver at the option of the government, by a vote of 47 to 32 ..Negotiations are progressing for a reciprocity treaty between the United States and Spain, Porto Rico, and Cuba ....The exports of wheat in 1897 aggregated 109,909,328 bushels, and of corn 189,127,570 bushels.

Saturday, January 29.—Republican leaders in the House of Representatives decided that it would have a good effect on the country to vote down the Teller resolution immediately.... Count William Bismarck, son of the Prince, wounded Herr Mauback in a duel in Germany ....More anti-Semitic demonstrations occurred in Paris and Bordeaux.

Sunday, January 30.—Secretary Long has ordered the trial by court-martial of Civil Engineer A. G. Menocal, on charges of culpable inefficiency in the performance of duty, growing out of the faulty work on the New York dry dock....Consul-General Lee gave a banquet in Havana to the officers of the "Maine".... It is said China has consented to have Russians at the head of her customs and railways ...A volunteer fleet will convey in the quickest time practicable over 10,000 Russians to the far East.

Monday, January 31.—Information has been received by the war department that its representative took possession of stores in Dawson last month, and issued them to the people.... The New York State Senate passed a resolution of sympathy with the Cuban insurgents. The Italian minister for foreign affairs said that there were no relations of any kind between Italian agents and Alfred Dreyfus....About 25 per cent. of the striking British engineers were put to work, and others will follow.

Tuesday, February 1.—Hon. John W. Griggs took the oath of office yesterday as attorney-general.....The government's receipts in January, exclusive of the receipts from the sale of the Union Pacific Railroad, showed a deficit of $7,901,484....Three blizzards prevailed; one of them was in New England, another in the west, and the third in Canada....In speaking of the Chinese trouble of Great Britain Sir Richard Webster, attorney-general, said the United States was supporting England's policy with surprising unanimity....General Westmacott has recovered twenty-two bodies of the British slain in India on Saturday and has inflicted heavy loss upon the enemy.

Wednesday, February 2.—The President gave his second reception of the season in honor of Congress and the judiciary; President and Mrs. Dole, of Hawaii, were present....Dr. Miguel, Prussian minister of finance, has issued a decree forbidding the importation of American fresh fruits of any kind into Germany, on sanitary grounds....A relief expedition is to be sent by the government to the gold region in Alaska and to the Klondike.. The damage done by the New England blizzard of Monday and Tuesday was enormous, amounting to $1,-500,000 in Boston alone....The Russian foreign minister says it is the Czar's unalterable determination that Prince George shall be made governor of Crete.

Thursday, February 3.—Japan has withdrawn all objections to the annexation of Hawaii by the United States....It is officially estimated that the cost of the Cuban war from February, 1895, to the end of 1897 is $240,000,000; arrears due from the Cuban treasury amount to $40,000,000; ....Great Britain is assembling a fleet in Chinese waters capable of coping with that of "any combination opposing the British policy."..... The German Bundesrath has affirmed a decree prohibiting the importation from America of live plants and shrubs; the decree will also affect American fruits.

Friday, February 4.—The President has nominated Ethan A. Hitchcock, now minister to Russia, to be ambassador to Russia....Secretary Gage has asked for an increase of the appropriation for suppressing counterfeiting.... At a meeting of the Prussian diet the minister of agriculture declared that American horses developed influenza after importation; he said that if the importations increased it would be necessary to adopt a suitable quarantine.

Saturday, February 5.—Further testimony for the prosecution was given in the trial of Sheriff Martin and his deputies at Hazleton, Pa....Returning miners report new strikes in the Klondike region and state that a stampede from Dawson is imminent....Joseph P. Smith, director of the bureau of American Republics, died in Miami, Fla....The text of the imperial edict relative to the exclusion of American live plants because of the San José scale was published in Berlin ....The Cross River expedition (British) is reported to have been massacred in Africa.

Sunday, February 6.—The Populists in Congress have completed an organization with Representative Bell of Colorado, as chairman.... The government relief expedition, with supplies for the Klondike miners, has sailed from Portland, Ore., for Dyea.....Señor José Maria Galvez, president of the Autonomist cabinet in Cuba, says there is no disagreement among its members or anything in the nature of a crisis. ....The governorship and the Cretan question generally have been postponed for the present ....Conflicts continue between the Turkish troops and peasants in Thessaly; the Turks have occupied several villages.

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INQUIRIES ANSWERED

[To Correspondents.]

THE vast correspondence of Self Culture, to be manageable at all by the editor—and he seeks always to give it his personal supervision—calls for attention to the following rules, on the part of those communicating with the magazine:—

1. Only those who are members of the Home University League (membership $2 per annum) are entitled to the privilege of asking questions and of seeking information from Self Culture.

2. Members of the League must be considerate in the number of queries they address to the League secretary, and be content with mere outline arguments when requesting topics or material for an address or a debate.

3. The League is *not* a correspondence school, and does not profess to teach, but only to suggest and occasionally direct studies, and supply such information as the member requires in overcoming a difficulty or in explaining a matter which he may not clearly comprehend.

4. It is not the function of the League to solve mathematical questions, translate passages from the ancient or modern languages, or do purely school or college work. Nor can it undertake to give the plots of novels or dramas.

5. With the pressure of correspondence upon the editor, it is practically impossible to answer letters requiring research, or leisure and opportunity for thought, unless reasonable time is given for an answer.

6. It will greatly facilitate replies when inquiries are put in a clear, concise, and definite form. Where more than one question is asked, paragraph the separate inquiries, and do not let them run loosely over a long and rambling letter.

7. Correspondents who do not enclose a two-cent stamp for reply will be apt to find their communications disregarded. Many write to the magazine for information to be furnished in the Inquiries Department; but this we can do only where the matter is of general rather than of individual interest.

8. Do not write after the first of the month and expect replies in Self Culture in the following number; the Inquiries Department is usually made up for press by the 5th of the month previous to the date of issue.

9. Subscribers merely to Self Culture or purchasers of the magazine at the news-stands, must regard answers to communications, where it is convenient to furnish replies, as a courtesy and not as a right.

10. No attention can be paid to unsigned letters.

Will you please give me some information respecting General Stark of the Revolutionary army and state where I can read an account of his career?

John Stark, an American Revolutionary general, was born in Londonderry, New Hampshire, August 28, 1728. He grew up in the wilds of New Hampshire, became a farmer, was captured in 1752 by the Indians, and adopted into the St. Francis tribe. He served as captain in Rogers' Rangers, in the French-English War, in 1758–59, was present at the reduction of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, raised recruits at the beginning of the Revolutionary War, and took part in the battle of Bunker Hill. He saw service in Canada, at Trenton, and at Princeton, and distinguished himself at Bennington. Previous to the last-named battle he had been censured by the Continental Congress, but for his services at Bennington he was made a brigadier-general. He continued to take an active part in the patriot service, and held the command of the northern department of the army. He died in Manchester, New Hampshire, May 8, 1822. His saying, at Bennington, that "the enemy must be beaten, or Molly Stark will be a widow," is proverbial. For further information, consult Everett's sketch of General Stark's career in Sparks's "American Biography," and his "Life and Official Correspondence," edited by his grandson, published in 1860 at Concord, N. H.

Will you kindly state, in the next issue of Self Culture, what are the real facts concerning the early English traveller, Sir John Mandeville? Most text-books on English literature mention him, though I have seen it stated that no such person lived and wrote.

Literary research has in recent years dethroned Sir John Mandeville from the position he has long held as the "father of English prose." That reputed traveller and author, who is supposed to have flourished between the years 1300 and 1372 A. D., is now spoken of merely as a compiler, the bulk of his work having been borrowed, with entertaining though extravagant interpolations, from the narratives of Friar Odoric, Prester John, the writings of the German Knight William of Boldensole, and from certain twelfth-century Latin itineraries of Palestine and other countries. You will find the new facts set forth pretty fully in the biography of Mandeville in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XV., page 473. From that you will see that much of Mandeville's travels is

pure invention, and what is original is in the main derived from other pre-existing sources. The real writer is supposed to be a French physician, named Jehan de Bourgoigne, otherwise Johan a la Barbe. A statement is, however, made that this person was really an Englishman who had to fly from England on account of committing homicide, and resided and practiced as a physician at Liège, in France. The Britannica closes the sketch of Mandeville with these words: "The terseness, the simplicity, and the quaintness of the English version (of Sir John Mandeville's Travels), together with the curiosity of the subject-matter, will always make the work delightful reading; but the title 'father of English prose,' which in its stricter sense already belonged to King Alfred, must in its looser sense be now transferred to Wycliffe."

I should like to ask a question of SELF CULTURE, namely, am I right in claiming that Switzerland is the oldest existing Republic in the world? I understand that it has been a Republic for many hundred years, save, perhaps, for a short time, when Bonaparte had somewhat of a limited control of it.

You are right. Switzerland is the oldest of the modern-day Republics, and, what is equally striking is, it has maintained its Republican form of government all these years, though surrounded by monarchies. The Swiss Confederation practically dates from the year 1291, with the death of Rudolph of Hapsburg. It was not really founded, however, until 1308, by the union, against their Austrian oppressors, of the 3 Cantons of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, subsequently increased to 8 Cantons in 1353, to 13 in 1513, and to 22 in 1815. In 1803, Napoleon I. organized a new Confederation composed of 19 Cantons. Its present Federal Constitution dates from 1848, revised in 1874. The 600th anniversary of the Confederation was celebrated in August, 1891.

You will oblige by enlightening me as to the following inquiries:—

1. Is there such a publication as Spofford's Universal History—is it a trustworthy work, and who are the publishers?

2. What is the best classical and mythological pronouncing dictionary—i. e., one giving the accented pronunciations of the names of gods, demi-gods and myth characters, etc.

3. Where may I find the history of the Thirty Years' War in the Encyclopædia Britannica?

4. What are the most complete editions of Tennyson's poems and Shakespeare's plays to be had in this country?

5. Upon what historical event is the poem "The Bivouac of the Dead," by Theodore O'Hara, based?—Give reference to Britannica, please.

1. The work of Spofford you mention is, we presume, his "Library of Historical Characters and Famous Events." The work we do not personally know, however, though the author's eminent position as Librarian (until the other day) of the Congressional Library at Washington, would lead one to suppose that he would not put his name to a worthless book. The best work, of a compendious kind, known to us, is Larned's "History for Ready Reference," 5 vols., 8vo ($25.00), published by Nichols & Co., Springfield, Mass. The chief value of the work is that it is compiled from the great historians and writers in their own words, and is alphabetically and chronologically arranged. Another useful work of a compendious character is Clare's "Library of Universal History" (illustrated), in 5 quarto volumes (price $10.00), published by The Werner Company, Akron, O.

2. The best Classical Dictionaries are seldom pronouncing dictionaries. For instance, Smith's "Classical Dictionary" (Harper & Brothers, N. Y.) and Seyffert's "Dictionary of Classical Antiquities" (Macmillan & Co., N. Y.) are not. We think you would prefer such works as the two named and get, in addition, a good English lexicon, with appendix of pronunciations of proper names—such as "The Student's Standard Dictionary" (price $2.00), published by The Funk & Wagnalls Co., N. Y. An excellent "Manual of Mythology" is the well-known one by A. S. Murray, revised by W. H. Klapp ($1.25), Phila.: Henry Altemus, publisher.

3. The Thirty Years' War is treated of in the Encyclopædia Britannica chiefly under Germany, Vol. X., page 497, but also under the various countries concerned in the struggle—viz., under Bohemia, Denmark, Sweden, and France. See, moreover, the article on the whole subject in "SELF CULTURE," for March, 1897 (Vol. IV., page 535).

4. The best complete single volume editions of Tennyson and Shakespeare are the Globe Editions (price $1.75 each), published by The Macmillan Co., 66 Fifth Ave., N. Y. From the same publishers you can also obtain an authorized and complete edition of Tennyson in 6 vols., at $9.00, and a pocket one, in 23 vols., at 45c. per volume. From Geo. Routledge & Sons, 27–29

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W. 23rd St., N. Y., you can obtain an edition of Shakespeare, in handy volume shape, 13 vols., for $5.00.

5. Theodore O'Hara's poem, "The Bivouac of the Dead," was written to commemorate the Kentuckians killed at Buena Vista, during the War with Mexico, Feb. 22–23, 1847. See Encyclopædia Britannica article United States, Vol. XXIII., page 765.

Will SELF CULTURE, with its wonted thoughtfulness, answer the question: "Is the world growing better?"

There can hardly be any doubt, we think, that the world is growing better, and that Christianity is everywhere working its way into the great heart of humanity. There are wide-spread evidences of this on every side. There is at the present time a restlessness in religion which is very marked, and this is thought to be a hopeful sign. It is a reaching out in the affairs of human progress for the co-operation of Christianity. Each era in the history of human thought has been marked by one central problem as matter for controversy. In one age, as in that of Luther, the crux of European thought lay in a problem of Theology; in another age, as in that of Kant, the commanding interest was held by a question of Philosophy; fifty years later, in the time of Darwin, the critical problem was one of Science, and both the theologian and the philosopher had to recast their formulas under the new hypothesis of Evolution.

Now, almost fifty years later, the centre of interest, alike for philosophers and theologians, thinkers and workers, lies in what we call the "Social Question." The needs and hopes of human society, its inequalities of condition, its industrial conflict, its dream of a better order — these are the themes of the pulpit and platform in lectures and sermons, which voice the unrest of all classes, and it is to the Church of Christ that the masses of mankind are turning for counsel and help. The attitude of the Christian Church in all parts of the world in our modern age is toward a new system of humanitarianism combined with the old religion. The Theological Seminaries are adding to their instruction the new science of Sociology. True Christian charity is making of the world of to-day a better world, because it is stirring the souls of the people with the sense of a common life. There is the problem of poverty, and the problem of wealth, each with its own perils, both to the persons involved and to the welfare of society at large. Men are groping for some door which shall open before them into a better social future, and the Christian Churches of the world are accepting these human questions as a part of their religious duty. Therefore, we say the world is growing better from a religious standpoint.

As a League Member, may I ask for some assistance in enabling me to discuss the question: "Versatility *versus* Profundity?" Mine is the Versatility side, and I should be glad of any points to sustain it in the debate.

We hear it said, by way of explaining a signal lack of success attendant upon the efforts of certain persons, "He tries to do everything." Instead of concentrating the energies upon the few things that lie at the heart of one's legitimate work, we are apt to diffuse ourselves in many and diverse lines of effort, and so fail to succeed in anything. The obvious moral is, let each person focalize instead of radiate. Again, we hear it said, by way of explaining the marked success of certain persons in their undertakings, "He could do everything. He makes a place for himself by his ability to pursue many different lines of work, and do it well. He is a host in himself — a dozen men rolled into one, and so he succeeds." The obvious moral here is, let every man radiate rather than concentrate. We may well ask, then, is versatility or profundity good? As respects the two men above referred to, it is easy to see that they are not in the same category. It is not that versatility failed in the one case and succeeded in the other; but that the first tried to be versatile and the second was versatile. The failure of the first was the failure of one who attempted to do that for which he was not fitted; the success of the other was the success of one who did only what he was able. That is to say, versatility is a gift — like other gifts, inborn but subject to modification by culture or desire, and like other gifts, an endowment to be prized, developed, and put to service. Like other gifts, it may be aided; versatility may be more widely conferred than men are accustomed to think.

They are few who are shut up by nature to one form of efficient activity, few who cannot turn themselves with a fair degree of ease and facility in more than one direction of effort. There are many men who with commendable industry and excellent results confine their efforts to one or two lines of ascertained efficiency, who might with large advantage awaken and exercise other powers slumbering within them. Instead of assuming that they can do this or that only, they are warranted in assuming that they could do more if they would with reasonable prudence venture upon new forms of activity.

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Many times delightful surprises have thus been attained. A young man, who through business vicissitudes lost his position of salesman in a country store, was advised by a friend who had noticed the quality of his voice to put in his unoccupied time in the study of music. Though protesting that he could never become a singer, he nevertheless followed the advice and to-day is a notable tenor soloist, commanding a good salary.

The advantages of a cultivated versatility, cultivated but held subordinate to special and proven lines of work, are many. For one thing, it enriches the life, making it worth more to the possessor as well as to others. It moreover supplies outlets for surplus energy. Again, it offers the relief of temporary and restful change of occupation. Yet again, it multiplies points of sympathetic contact with other minds and many and diverse interests. Physical versatility, like intellectual versatility, is worth cultivating. To be ambidextrous is better than to be pronouncedly right-handed or left-handed. The carpenter who can drive a nail equally well with either hand sometimes has his particular and profitable use. It is now believed that paralysis of this side and of that side would be less frequent if men learned to use the muscles on both sides of the body in some such way as would tend to keep the body in balance. There are analogous mental conditions. Michael Angelo was remarkable for his versatility, he was super-eminent as sculptor, painter, architect, engineer, anatomist, and author.

Will you kindly give me what information you can regarding an American portrait painter, named Waldo, who lived in the early part of this century?

The portrait painter, Samuel Waldo (1783–1861), was a native of Connecticut. He received his first instructions in art in his native State, but painted for some time in Charleston, S. C. In 1806 he proceeded to London, and was admitted into the small but select circle of American artists then in the English metropolis. After painting portraits in London for three years, he returned to the United States in 1809, and opened a studio in New York, where the remainder of his professional life was spent. He devoted himself to portrait-painting with marked success. The New York Historical Society owns his likeness of Peter Remsen, and several portraits of ex-mayors of the city of New York, by Waldo, are in the City Hall there.

I should feel highly gratified if you would give me some points on the affirmative side of the following question: "Resolved, That the Negro has more cause of complaint than the Indian."

You will find the subject you refer to SELF CULTURE has already been treated in the magazine, though from the point of view of the Indian, rather than of the negro. See the issue for July, 1897. With the hints for an argument there set forth, on behalf of the Indian, you will no doubt be able to get points on behalf of the negro, by inverting the argument, so far as that can be done. We need hardly say that the negro has not the same ground of complaint as the Indian has, since the white intruder on this continent has not killed the negro off as he has killed the Indian. Even in the days of slavery, the negro was, in the main, kindly treated, as it was the interest of the slave-owner to take care of his "human chattel." There are few to-day who will justify slavery under any conditions, though you will meet those who affirm that the colored population of the South were happier under the old than under the new régime. In some sections and under certain local conditions, where prejudice against color still exists, that affirmation may be true. But human kind, white or colored, cannot exist happily under serfdom, and there is no morality that will to-day successfully defend it.

Your best argument, obviously, is to deal with the horrors and outrage that belong to the slave trade, in Africa and elsewhere, where human monsters, actuated by greed, have long plied their vile trade and spread desolation over even densely populated parts of the "Dark Continent." Happily that trade is now a precarious one, but the horrors of it were real and appalling, and the trapping of the black captives in Africa, penning them in fetters, and half-starving them in crowded and foul shipholds, on the way to this continent, may well be made a heavy indictment against those who were engaged in or were responsible for the trade. There is room here for much invective against the system, and better argument can be made use from these, and such like facts, than in drawing from the exaggerated pictures of slave treatment in such works as "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

Please inform me, in next month's magazine, who Merlin was.

There are two Merlins, both half legendary, known to literature—the Scottish and the Welsh Merlin. The former is supposed to have lived in the 6th, and the latter in the 5th, Centuries. It may be, however, that they are one,

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the two probably being confused in the popular imagination. The Merlin of Tennyson's "Idylls of the King" was a Cymric bard, who took the name of Ambrose, though known best as Merlin the Enchanter. The chronicler, Geoffrey of Monmouth, speaks of him as "having sprung from the intercourse of a demon with a Welsh princess; to have been rescued from his malignant destiny by baptism, and to have displayed the possessions of miraculous powers from infancy. In Arthurian romance, he is represented as being the companion and counsellor of King Arthur, and he it was who instituted the Round Table at Carduel, with seats for the King and fifty of his Knights and a vacant place for the Holy Grail. See the article, Romance, and the analysis of the Arthurian Legends, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XX., page 645.

Is a ring around the moon the sign of a storm? Some say that it is; others say that it is not. In any case, please assign the cause. I have even been told that the phenomenon is a superstition.

The phenomenon is not a superstition. Close observers of clouds and atmospheric effects have found that when a ring or halo forms around the moon the conditions are favorable for rain or a storm. Such a ring is never seen when the sky is clear, and it is owing to the moisture and heaviness of the overcast sky that a ring forms. The layer of clouds which forms the haze through which the moon is seen is classified as *cirro-stratus*, and they are of considerable density. When heavier and lower, they are called *alto-stratus*. When the cirro-stratus are not too dense they form with the alto-stratus, the halo which is seen around the moon. These clouds are known to be composed of ice crystals and not of water-drops. The halo is formed by the refraction of the light of the moon through the crystals of ice. Such a halo may be formed in any temperature, because at a moderate elevation above the earth's surface the condensed vapor of the air is frozen even in the hottest weather. The ring in itself does not necessarily betoken rain, but the fact that a ring forms indicates that the kind of cloud is favorable to rain, and that the grouping of the clouds, their height and state of temperature, threaten precipitation.

Pray give me the name of any good book or books useful to the members of a Debating Society. I desire to know of a work that will set forth not only the rules governing such societies, but supply material for debate, *pro* and *con*, on a variety of topics.

We cannot, perhaps, do better in aiding you to conduct your debating society, and to awaken a new interest in the work of its members, than to suggest a book on the subject which we deem of much value to debaters. The book is entitled "Briefs for Debate," and is published by Longmans, Green & Co., Fifth Ave., New York. It is compiled by R. C. Ringwalt. The price is nominal, and, as we have remarked, its usefulness to such a society as you are interested in is, we think, great.

We cannot attempt here to enumerate the rules and regulations of a properly conducted debating club, particularly as the approved methods practiced in such clubs include many suggestions and remarks which modify the set rules. All set forth, the standard regulations of modern debating clubs are quite extensive, and should be followed with sufficient accuracy to establish order and system in the club. For this reason we suggest the above work as a guide and authoritative reference. "Briefs for Debate" contains a full and complete set of rules for debating both the affirmative and the negative sides; it treats also of the art of persuasion in debate, of rebuttal, as well as of criticism, of the material used in the argument. It gives a synopsis of seventy-five debatable questions, on both the affirmative and the negative side, with briefs for a still longer list on current political, economic, and social topics. The arguments used on both sides consist of points which have been selected by the author from debates on the subjects at Harvard University during the past ten years. The arguments used are, as a rule, interesting and convincing, and cover the ground *for* and *against*, from an intelligent point of view. There is also a list of 200 additional topics for discussion without briefs. We recommend the purchase of this work both for the rules and regulations and the material suggested for use in argument. See also Rowton's "How to Conduct a Debate" (price 50 cents), published by Dick & Fitzgerald, Ann St., New York.

In a literary circle, of which I am a member, we are studying Dickens, the novelist, and I am assigned to deal with his "Grotesque Characters." Pray give me some assistance in treating of and presenting the latter to the club.

It is well known that the characters most familiar to us in the writings of Charles Dickens had originals in real life. This is especially true of his grotesque characters, and it is in

these we think that the author has exhibited a special genius in portraying them. Certainly he has invested them with a peculiar and natural charm. The novelist never produced nor intended to produce a complete picture of a living person, but only the leading traits, embodying in his portraiture of one individual his experience of fifty. It has been said of his odd characters that the likeness in some cases bore such a striking resemblance to the unconscious sitter, as to cause a natural resentment toward the writer, for the publicity thus given to his mental or personal peculiarities. Dickens, during that period of his life when he was engaged in the capacity of clerk in a solicitor's office, had abundant opportunity for observing the various peculiarities and weaknesses of lawyers, their clerks and clients. Of these opportunities he availed himself with the keenness which characterized him throughout his life. It was here that the author received his inspiration of Pickwick, and it is in "Pickwick Papers" that he most frequently utilized his knowledge of the traits of character which distinguish members of the legal profession and their victims. The character of Serjeant Buzfuz, in all probability, was of a composite, or mixed order of composition, and burlesqued the foibles of more than one learned gentleman. Sam Weller was red-faced and good-natured and chiefly noted for his quaint sayings and out-of-the-way comparisons. His answer to an old-time acquaintance recently returned from abroad, illustrates his mental peculiarity when he says, on being asked concerning his former companion: "Law, bless you, sir. He's been dead this many a-year. Leastways, if he ain't they've used him werry bad, for—they've buried him."

In the story of "Nicholas Nickleby" the author states in his preface that "Mr. Squeers" with but one eye is the representative of a class, and not of an individual "where imposture, ignorance, and brutal cupidity are the stock in trade of a small body of men." In Harold Skimpole of "Bleak House" Mr. Dickens has portrayed the eccentricities of a friend, though the author explains that the peculiarity is greatly exaggerated. In "David Copperfield" the character Micawber is said to be a reproduction of the author's father, who was remarkable for rhetorical exuberance, and who had a trick of becoming very confidential on small or no provocation.

Mr. Dickens excelled in reproducing the foibles and idiosyncrasies of people in his stories, and in doing so he assigns to them fascinating manners and gaieties of speech which relieve and redeem them from contempt. There are characters which, while we feel the exaggeration amounting almost to caricature, we feel that they are not mere "creatures of the imagination," but that they exist in our very midst. Pickwick, Micawber, Sarah Gamp, Smike, Dick Swiveller, live and move upon the stage as human beings.

See "The Bookworm" for 1890, page 5, also "Littell's Living Age," Vol. 177, pages 485–496. In connection with this subject you would get much assistance from a little volume entitled "Character Sketches from Charles Dickens," by "Kyd," published by Raphael Tuck & Son, London. This may be found at any leading bookstore or at your Public Library.

Please advise me where I can find an account of the life and work of Kossuth, the Hungarian patriot.

See Kossuth's own "Memoirs of an Exile," which, no doubt, can be had at your Public Library or got through any bookseller. You might also consult, if you can get access to it, Prof. F. W. Newman's "Reminiscences of Two Exiles and Two Wars," which deals with Louis Kossuth and Count Pulaski, the Polish general. Vamberry's "Hungary," in the Story of the Nations series (price $1.50), published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, W. 23rd St., New York, will also be helpful in giving you a knowledge of Kossuth's times and work. See also the sketch of the patriot, in the New Supplement of the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. III.. page 1806.

Pray, what are some subjects suitable for a valedictory oration at a high school, and for debate at a college contest?

We cannot answer your question better, we think, than by directing your attention to the "Inquiries Answered" department of SELF CULTURE for a number of volumes back. There you will see the nature of the topics discussed, with the hints suggested for treating the several subjects. Besides the topics you will find there discussed, we suggest the following as themes for compositions or for oratorical debate:—

Character and how it may be built up.

What makes for success in life?

Are the morals of our country declining?

Prominent American philanthropists.

Is immigration a benefit to this country?

The benefits of a knowledge of languages.

Some useful inventions of the last fifty years.

What books should we read?

Should the United States annex further territory?

Was Cæsar a true patriot?

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Three great generals: Hannibal, Julius Cæsar, and Alexander the Great.

Which is the more useful—the steam engine or the printing press?

The respective advantages of city and country life.

The advantages of self-dependence.

Republican *versus* monarchical government.

Does a university education unfit a man for business life?

Magnanimity as a charm in character.

The relative importance of method and knowledge.

The difficulty of being unprejudiced.

Britain as a colonizing power.

Character sketches—Washington, Webster, Lincoln, Grant.

The mood of America at the time of the Revolutionary War.

My certificate of membership in the Home University League has been received. I am in the harness business, and, in connection therewith, I should like to take up the study of Veterinary Surgery and Chemistry. Please inform me how to set about the study.

We are not certain from what you say in your communication whether or not you are under the impression that we conduct a correspondence school, or send out prescribed lessons to students under our direction and supervision. If that is your idea, we may say that we do not teach in this way. It is entirely outside of our functions, as you will understand by glancing though the pamphlet containing the statement of our Home University League work.

If you wish to study to become a Veterinary Surgeon you may be able to do so by home study. We are told by a professor who conducts such a college that it would be a difficult matter to obtain a high degree of efficiency by home study, owing to the absence of lectures which are of great benefit, and of the actual experience with horses which is included in a regular course, and which is of great practical advantage to the pupil. It often happens, however, that when there is a special aptitude for the subject in the student, and when energy and application is exerted, individual effort without school advantages will bring about very good results. Much depends also upon what degree of proficiency a student aspires to attain. For ordinary practice there is much of theory, and other matters, which may be left out and still a good practicing knowledge of the work may be gained. If you desire to take up the study of veterinary science by yourself we will endeavor to get a method of study mapped out for you and name the books it will be necessary for you to have. Kirby's "Veterinary Guide" is a good work, but you will need much elementary training before you can utilize the knowledge it contains. Please let us hear from you in regard to this.

For beginning the study of Chemistry there is no better work than "Short Course in Chemistry," by Thomas R. Baker, published by The Werner School Book Company (164 Adams St., Chicago). This work is designed for students beginning the subject, and is based on experimental methods.

I consider myself favored in securing a MAGAZINE that is really a teacher. May I enlighten myself on the following points:—

1. Is the earth's attraction the same upon all molecules? (2) Do all bodies which weigh the same contain the same amount of mass? Steele's "Popular Physics" seems to treat them as one and the same thing in discussing momentum (p. 23). (3) Am I correct when I understand the term "Incommensurable" to mean only that the common measure cannot be expressed in figures?

1. Attraction exists between all molecules whether they are massed together or separated. If you take a piece of iron and attempt to pull it to pieces, the force which resists your efforts is the attraction of the molecules of iron for one another. This is the attraction at a minute distance. The force the earth exerts upon molecules of matter is gravitation, otherwise familiarly known as weight. If you hold a stone in your hand, the weight you feel is really the attraction of the earth pulling the stone; in turn the stone attracts the earth. Each moves to meet the other; the mass of the earth is, however, so great that its motion is imperceptible.

2. The bulk or quantity of matter in a body is called its *mass*. It is not the same as *weight*, but is proportional to it, so that we speak of pounds of mass as well as pounds of weight. The difference between mass and weight is seen when acted upon by velocity. The product of mass by velocity is the momentum. To measure any force, it is necessary to know first what quantity of matter is moved or its mass, and also what velocity it receives. A heavy body may be moving very slowly and yet have an immense momentum. An iceberg with scarcely perceptible motion will crush the strongest ship. On the other hand, a light body with a high velocity may have an enormous momentum. Air in a hurricane will tear up trees by

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the roots and throw buildings down from their foundations. Mass and weight must be distinguished between in measuring force.

3. Two quantities of the same kind are incommensurable in relation to each other when they have not a common unit—that is, when there is no quantity of the same kind so small that it is contained in both an exact number of times. It means, in other words, that they do not admit of a common measure.

See Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XV., article Mechanics. Also "Natural Philosophy," by Thomas R. Baker, published by The Werner School Book Company, 164 Adams Street, Chicago.

Will you be kind enough to answer the following query, and so settle a friendly argument? Can we *prove* that two and two are four, or must we accept the statement merely as an established fact?

That two *plus* two equals four is a necessary principle or truth. It is *a priori* knowledge, by which is meant that which is known without needing verification from experience. *A posteriori* knowledge depends upon experience for proof. The rules of Arithmetic and the propositions of Geometry must be true in all cases, and are *a priori*, because they are known and proved independently of experience. The multiplication table and other principles of Mathematics are true in themselves, irrespective of application to cases of actual being. They are necessary principles or self-evident truths, because the mind cannot conceive of opposite conditions without intellectual suicide. They are facts which are furnished the mind by intuition, and it is upon these truths that the science of Pure Logic is based. In reality, no intuitive knowledge can be proved. Thus, the objects perceived by the senses are known intuitively, as whatever we see, hear, touch, taste or smell. So, also, our state of consciousness, our feelings and cognitions are known intuitively without the intervention of the reasoning or thinking faculty. These faculties furnish the original material of all our knowledge and are necessary truths. We know *a priori* that two straight lines cannot enclose space, just as we know that the forms of arithmetical addition, etc., are the same to whatever they may be applied. We know that the whole quantity is greater than a part of the quantity. It cannot be proved that gold is gold except that we conceive it as such. It can, however, be proved that two men and two men are four men, because the moment we apply an object we get something tangible for our calculation.

[To aid you more fully in understanding what is meant by the terms *a priori* and *a posteriori*, we append a definition from Kant's "Critique of Pure Reason:" "General truths, which at the same time bear the character of an inward necessity, must be independent of experience—clear and certain by themselves. They are, therefore, called *a priori*, while that which is simply taken from experience is said to be, in ordinary parlance, known *a posteriori* or empirically only."]

See Encyclopædia Britannica Vol. XIV., pages 780–803.—Article on *Logic*.

Will SELF CULTURE kindly inform me of a story by Mary Augusta Ward, in which some account is given of unsectarian religious work in London; also, of an institution, founded under her auspices, which is, I believe, actively at work in the British metropolis?

The book you refer to is presumedly Mrs. Humphry Ward's notable purpose-novel, "Robert Elsmere," which gives an account of a religious propaganda in London, conducted by the hero of the story. The publication of the novel gave rise to a practical effort, which is now being carried on in London, England, in the nature of a Theological Hall. It is designated University Hall, and owes its inception in the main, as we have said, to the publication of "Robert Elsmere" by Mrs. Humphry (Mary Augusta) Ward. The home of the Hall is in Gordon Square, London. Its aim is twofold: to provide public lectures on Biblical, religious, social, and economic subjects, free from any ecclesiastial restrictions; and to provide a residence for young men engaged in business or the professions, who are willing to give a part of their leisure to social or religious work in the neighborhood. The residents have engaged a hall in Marchmont Street, in one of the most neglected districts in St. Pancras, as a centre for their work. There are now, we believe, about a dozen men in residence at the Hall. The Biblical lectures have followed the lines of Continental criticism, and the sympathies of the founders of the Hall are with the most liberal development of the religious life; no religious tests are imposed upon residents, and men of diverse creeds and churches are included in their number. Mrs. Humphry Ward, the Earl of Carlisle, the Rev. Stopford Brooke, and Dr. Martineau were among the founders. The Secretary is Mrs. Humphry Ward, who may be addressed at 25 Grosvenor Place, S. W. London, England; and the Warden is John Russell, M. A., University Hall, London.

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I am on the negative side in a debate on the question: "Resolved, that the excellencies of the United States have arisen more from the efforts of the statesmen than the generals." I should be glad of a few points in outline to sustain my side of the argument.

The services rendered to the United States and its citizens by its generals are of incalculable value. It has been the peculiar duty of our great generals both to make and to shape events. They have looked forward and foreseen, have waited for and seized opportunities, and made the most of them by striking a blow which made sure of the end. In nearly every case the great general of this country has been also a great diplomat, so that the excellence of his service to his country has been effected through his genius and fortitude as a general, enabling him by daring deeds to give effect to the work of his brain.

Washington was a man equal to the emergencies of his time, and the service rendered by him met an urgent need. He was, in the highest sense, a providential man raised up for the demands of his era, and furnished with the qualities which fitted him for his eminent duties.

The same may be said of other American generals who have helped to shape, and succeeded in bringing to a successful end, the issues which have arisen in the administration of our country's affairs.

The great work accomplished by Washington was, first, the successful maintenance of the independence of the Colonies, despite their weakness and want of resources and unity; and, secondly, the wise administration in its beginnings of the Federal Government, by which the nation was well started on its career.

The successful termination of the Civil War, with the attendant incalculable good to our country, was due to the consummate skill and bravery of the generals engaged in the conflict for the Union. The most brilliant and sagacious statesman and diplomat would be useless to his country, and his services would be nullified in national crises, without the intrepid and active warrior to execute on the field of battle movements which originate or are planned in the councils of the nation.

I ask the privilege, as a League Member, of your giving me some points on the affirmative side of the question: "Should the United States grant subsidies to American Steamship Companies, that they may successfully compete with foreign nations in the carrying trade?" Tell me please also what is Canada's experience?

Congress having complete power to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the home States, which includes the right to determine what shall constitute an American vessel, to prescribe rules and regulations which shall govern navigation, and otherwise regulate all classes of foreign or interstate commerce, may also, where expedient, and in the interest of American commerce, well grant subsidies to native steamship companies. Many laws from time to time have been enacted upon the subject of navigation with the view to protect and encourage American ships. It would seem to be desirable, especially to-day, when the carrying trade of this country is largely in foreign hands, that we should give all reasonable aid with the view to building up our own carrying trade and and making it more successful. In the past this country has given large subsidies to steamship companies, from the time of the Collins line and in the early years of the contract with the Cunards. Other countries, particularly England, have largely subsidized the carrying of mails across the Atlantic, and to India and Australia. Even now, the subsidies which the British government gives to the steamship companies for the conveyance of mails is not far short of $4,000,000 annually. In '51–52, the provision of the United States for the foreign mail service amounted to about $2,000,000. This country has not been fortunate in securing results comparable to the expenditure. Money has been voted to lines to Brazil and South American ports, to China and Japan, but the result has not been satisfactory, while the appropriations have opened the door to corruption, subsidies falling into the hands of speculators.

Where subsidies are granted for trans-Atlantic or trans-Pacific mail services, the better way would be to pay so much per pound, instead of giving the company lump sums. Whether it is from lack of patriotism, or whatever the cause, the appropriations made by the government have not answered the desired ends.

The Canadian government gives subsidies to the Canadian Pacific Railway for its steam service to China and Japan, and is now in treaty with an English company to secure a similar fast service on the Atlantic. It has always seemed to get value for its money, though this country has not. The need to do something is now notorious, since the commerce of the country has largely passed into foreign hands, if we except the service now rendered by the American line, and what was once the "White Star" line.

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Will you please give me, a League Member, a few thoughts for an essay on the influence of Thomas Jefferson's life on the nation?

Jefferson stands as the representative of the principle and sentiment of American Democracy. Not Democracy in the sense opposed to Republicanism, represented by the two great political parties of the present day, but Democracy in the sense of government by the people. Comparisons between Hamilton and Jefferson, considered as statesmen, are often made. These public men represent two distinct elements of the American government — order and freedom. Hamilton saw clearly the necessity of power being lodged in the government, and also of the firm union of the States in order to constitute one strong nation. Jefferson's mind, on the other hand, was absorbed with the thought of freedom, of popular rights and of local government, and it was the part he played in the early history of the Republic to guard and transmit these. These distinct elements of the government have, in due time, attained a development proportionate and harmonious. Jefferson favored the largest individual freedom consistent with the general welfare, together with a corresponding curtailment of the powers of the government. The rights of the States he jealously guarded against any encroachment by the Federal power. He was, therefore, a staunch upholder of freedom, but freedom not opposed to order. He had regard more to freedom than to restraint. He became thus an apostle of the fundamental principle of the Revolution, which he had himself enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, — the essential quality of all men in respect of their natural rights. Hence he must be classed as a Radical, though he cannot be called an extreme one, and in the administration of the government he was not altogether true to his theory of the limitations of its powers. In a word, he represented the American political idea, — universal liberty, and the right of all to a just and equal representation in the government.

See "North American Review," Vol. 101, pages 313-335, article "The Political Opinions of Thomas Jefferson," also Adams's "History of the United States" — the section of the work dealing with the administration of Thomas Jefferson.

Can you give any information in the columns of SELF CULTURE regarding the following subject: Astronomers tell us that the inclination of the earth is constantly changing, so that in about 12,000 years Vega, in the constellation Lyra, will be the Polar Star. If this is correct, what will be the consequences as regards the earth's climate?

In the limited space in this department it is not possible for us to say much on so comprehensive a topic. If you will read James Croll's "Climate and Time," and "Climate and Cosmology" (published by D. Appleton & Co., of New York), you will find such information as modern research is bringing to light on this very interesting subject. Both of your inquiries are treated of in these works, which you may read with great profit to yourself.

From the comparative newness of the subject, and the complex nature of the forces to be taken into consideration, it follows that many of the prophesies set forth as to the nature of climatic changes at a future remote period, resulting from the earth's eccentricity and other causes, must be based upon theories and assumed hypotheses. No doubt predictions for the future, are opinions deduced often from a deep and careful study of the conditions and causes of past great changes in the climate of the globe; but much must necessarily be purely speculative. It appears from the latest researches of physicists and geologists that the globe is subject to great climatic changes every 10,000 or 12,000 years. The reasons assigned for this are not simply the change in the inclination of the earth, but the combined influence of three causes: — (1) astronomical, owing to the earth's eccentricity; (2) physical, due to the influence of snow and ice, ocean-currents, aqueous vapors, clouds, fogs, etc.; (3) geographical, or resulting from changes in the distribution of land and water, elevations or depressions in the sea bottom, contour of the sea coast or islands influencing the flow of ocean-currents. From these causes, it is concluded, that ten or twelve thousand years ago, when our northern winter solstice was last in aphelion, the climatic conditions of the globe were, in all probability, exactly the reverse of what they are at present. There appears to be very good geological evidence that such was the case. This shows to what extent the earth's eccentricity affects climate, and also that the tendency is to cool one hemisphere and to warm the other; to accumulate snow and ice on the one, and melt them on the other. Hence, all things being equal, it may be expected that, ten or twelve thousand years from now, climatic conditions throughout the globe will have entirely changed from what they are at present.

See also the article Geology, in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. X., page 212.

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Will you kindly state in SELF CULTURE what are the different processes in hardening soft centre steel? Also, pray let me know where the subject is treated of in the Encyclopædia Britannica.

The subject of steel, its general properties and relationships, and the various processes by which it is treated in preparing the metal for the different uses, is treated of in the Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. XIII., pages 278–359, under the article Iron. The hardening of steel is treated in paragraph 34, page 342. So wide a subject can, of course, only be treated in a general way in a cyclopædic article. There are processes for hardening steel by various compounds and preparations, and by hydraulic pressure; but each of these compositions is applied with a view to the particular use to which the metal is to be put. These processes are given in techno-chemical text-books, or in mechanical and workshop treatises, and will not be found in the Britannica. If you desire further information, mention the particular use to which the steel is to be put, and we shall try to help you.

I am on the affirmative side of the argument, "Resolved, that the power of Courts of Law to issue injunctions should be restricted." Any points you can readily give me on this side of the subject will be greatly appreciated.

There is in the public mind much doubt and uneasiness concerning the attitude taken by the Federal Courts, in recent years, in actively interfering in labor troubles and other matters, by the issuing of injunctions.

A few of the facts which are giving rise to this feeling of disquietude are, briefly, these:—

1. We have seen, of late, in suits between individuals or corporations, courts of equity — civil, not criminal, courts — invoked to restrain, not alone parties to the suits, but anybody, the whole country, with or without actual notice of a court order or injunction. This arbitrary use of power in the Courts has been directed not merely against the property which is the subjects of the suits, but also against the person — in committing or conspiring to commit, or aiding or advising others to commit, acts which are criminal and sometimes only on the ground that they are criminal acts — criminal at common law, or made so by the recent statutes known as the Anti-Trust Law and the Interstate Commerce Law.

2. We see persons committing, or about to commit, such acts, arrested by these civil courts, deprived of their liberty and punished by imprisonment. And we have seen this done without the usual safeguards of liberty afforded by the criminal law — without indictment, without right to counsel, without being confronted with witnesses, without trial by jury — and sentenced, without uniform statute, at the discretion of the judge.

3. We have seen courts order by instant fiat the ten or twenty thousand employees of a railroad system to carry out each and every duty of their employment, as directed by superior courts, so that for any failure or omission on the part of one of these employees, he may be summarily brought into court and punished.

4. Three principal arguments may be formulated as objections to the power of courts to issue such injunctions. They are briefly as follows: (1) That this action does away with the criminal law and its safeguards of indictment, with proof by witnesses, jury trial, and a fixed uniform punishment. It is in opposition to the Bill of Rights of our Constitution, which says that, in all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury; be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; be confronted with witnesses, and have the assistance of counsel for his defence, etc. (2) It makes the courts no longer judicial, but a part of the executive branch of the government. The Federal Courts may thus grow into mere star-chambers and run the country — as they already run nearly half the railroads. (3) It tends to make our judiciary either tyrannical or contemptible. If we do not fall under a tyranny, we shall fall into an almost worse plight of finding an injunction of our highest courts a mere empty threat, a jest and a by-word.

You will find very good points for your debate, both *pro* and *con*, in the "Political Science Quarterly," Vol. 10 (June, 1895), pages 189–202 (article on Modern Use of Injunctions).

In replying to the query (pages 460–61 of the February issue), as to the number of hours there were in the eighteenth century, we, it seems, have been caught napping. We inadvertently forgot to allow for the change in the Calendar which took place in the middle of the century, and for the difference of nearly three months, in the year 1751, owing to the new mode of reckoning, which set the legal year back from the 25th of March to the 1st of January, 1752. The year 1752 had, therefore, only 282 days, or 6768 hours for the year. Our computation has, therefore, to be rectified in view of this fact, and of the further fact that in the century there were only 24—not 25—extra days, the last year of the century, 1800, not being a leap year. Our thanks are due to the clerical correspondent ("an Ohio boy") who has courteously reminded us of our tripping.— ED. S. C.

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NEW INFORMATION NOTES

When a man or woman passes seventy years of age, says a writer in the "Medical Review," great care should be given to the conditions for the prolonging of life. The vital forces are greatly enfeebled at that period of life, and the powers of resistance are the weakest. A man of three-score years and ten, and over, is like an old machine that by proper care given to its conditions has been kept running many years, and is still able to do work, but its wheels and axles and pinions are much worn and are rickety, and if it should be pushed, even to a small extent, in excess of its diminished powers, it breaks down and cannot be repaired, for every part of it is shattered. But if worked carefully and intelligently, by a person who understands its conditions and knows its capabilities, it can be kept in action a much longer time than would be possible if a careless engineer controlled it. In these fast times, however, it is generally not profitable to husband the resources of an old machine. But this is not true as regards our old men and women. It is desirable to hold on to them as long as possible, and if we can succeed in prolonging their lives five or ten years, or more, it will greatly enhance our profit and happiness.

At the recent Postal Congress attention was called to the fact that two-thirds of all the letters which pass through the postoffices of the world are written by and sent to people who speak English. There are substantially 500,000,000 persons speaking colloquially one or another of the ten or twelve chief modern languages, and of these about 25 per cent., or 125,000,000 persons, speak English. About 90,000,000 speak Russian, 75,000,000 German, 55,000,000 French, 45,000,000 Spanish, 35,000,000 Italian, and 12,000,000 Portuguese, and the balance Hungarian, Dutch, Polish, Flemish, Bohemian, Gaelic, Roumanian, Swedish, Finnish, Danish, and Norwegian. Thus, while only one-quarter of those who employ the facilities of the postal departments of civilized governments speak as their native tongue English, two-thirds of those who correspond do so in the English language. This situation arises from the fact that so large a share of the commercial business of the world is done in English, even among those who do not speak English as their native language. There are, for instance, more than 20,000 postoffices in India, the business of which in letters and papers aggregates more than 300,000,000 parcels a year, and the business of these offices is done chiefly in English, though of India's total population, which is nearly 300,000,000, fewer than 300,000 persons either speak or understand English.

Of the fifteen decisive battles of the world, the average death-rate in the last five of them (of which alone reliable statistics are preserved) was about 25 per cent., ranging from 20 per cent., the British loss at Saratoga, to 47 per cent., the loss of the Swedes at Pultowa. Of other great battles it is difficult to fix the average death-rate, though it may be estimated at about 20 per cent. The rates range from 0.9 (the German loss at Sedan in September, 1870) to 50 per cent., the British loss at Bloody Albuera. As a matter of fact, things stand very much as they used to do, save that the slaughter, when it does occur, always comes more quickly. A great battle in which the quick-firing guns can be brought into effective use will probably increase the death-rate largely, but that remains to be proved. General statistics prove that since the Trojan War, 3,000 years ago, not a single year has elapsed in which some war has not caused the killing of a large number of men; while it is calculated that all the world's wars are responsible for the deaths of fourteen billions of human beings.

A German military critic has been adding up the grand total of the Continental armies, and after noting that we can form only a vague idea of what is meant by tens of millions, he tries to bring home to his readers in another way the colossal growth of modern armaments. If, he says, we could have all the armies of the Continent on a war footing and drawn up in one long procession, with their guns and ammunition and baggage wagons, the column would be rather more than 24,000 miles long, and, marching day and night, it would take nearly a year to pass a given point. To maintain this immense host costs £187,500,000 per annum.

It is interesting to note that the capital value of the British navy at the present time exceeds £94,000,000. The first cost of the fleet which led to the downfall of Napoleon was but £10,000,000 sterling. The fleet then comprised between 480 and 490 fighting vessels.

It is quite important, in speaking of the longest day of the year, to say what part of the world we are talking about, as will be seen by reading the following list, which tells the length of the longest day in different places. How unfortunate are the children in Tornea, Finland, where Christmas day is less than three hours in length! At Stockholm, Sweden, it is eighteen and one-half hours in length. At Spitzenbergen the longest day is three and one-half months. At London, England, and Bremen, Prussia, the longest day has sixteen and one-half hours. At Hamburg in Germany, and Dantzic in Prussia, the longest day has seventeen hours. At Vardöe, Norway, the longest day lasts from May 21 to July 22, without interruption. At St. Petersburg, Russia, and Tobolsk, Siberia, the longest day is nineteen hours, and the shortest five hours. At Tornea, Finland, June 21 brings a day nearly twenty-two hours long, and Christmas, one less than three hours in length. At New York the longest day is about fifteen hours, at Montreal, Canada, it is sixteen.

Sir James Sawyer, the eminent consulting physician, has recently been lecturing at Birmingham, England, on the subject of human longevity. He lays down nineteen rules, which, he asserts, if followed closely, will prolong human life by many years. These rules are as follows: "1, Eight hours' sleep; 2, sleep on right side; 3, keep your bedroom window open all night; 4, have a mat to your bedroom door; 5, do not have your bedstead against the wall; 6, no cold tub in the morning, but a bath regulated to the temperature of the body; 7, exercise

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before breakfast; 8, eat little meat and see that it is well cooked; 9 (for adults) drink no milk; 10, eat plenty of fat to feed the cells which destroy disease germs; 11, avoid intoxicants, which destroy those cells; 12, daily exercise in the open air; 13, allow no pet animals in your living rooms—they are apt to carry about disease germs; 14, live in the country if you can; 15, watch the three D's—drinking-water, damp, and drains; 16, have change of occupation; 17, take frequent and short holidays; 18, limit your ambition; 19, keep your temper."

At the last French army manœuvres a new form of portable searchlight was submitted to experimental trial, the object of the invention being to afford a means of discovering wounded men on the battlefield after dark. The lamp can be fixed on a stand or carried by a soldier, and will throw a beam of light in any direction required of such intensity that an object can be plainly seen on the darkest night at a distance of 250 yards. The French military authorities have not published any particulars regarding the lamp, but it appears to be a high-pressure jet, by which oil is ignited in the form of spray—a modification of the powerful lamps constantly used on constructive works in our own country.

Professor Flinders Petrie, the well-known Egyptologist, has made good use of the photographic camera as a "Handmaid of Exploration." His photographic work in Egypt was accomplished under great difficulties. In spite of these obstacles Professor Petrie has succeeded in securing photos of some wonderful "finds," some of them representing objects which were at least five thousand five hundred years old. The wonderful state of preservation of these memorials unearthed in Egypt, which we generally regard as perishable, is due to the peculiar property of the dry sand in which they have been buried for so long. Thus, a workman's basket, with the original cords attached, was in as good a condition as when used fifty centuries ago; and the same may be said of specimens of papyrus of the same age, which are totally unchanged.

The following, says the "Buffalo Commercial," is a complete list of the maiden names of the mothers of the Presidents of the United States: Washington, Mary Ball; John Adams, Susanna Boylston; Jefferson, Jane Randolph; Madison, Nellie Conway; Monroe, Eliza Jones; J. Q. Adams, Abigail Smith; Andrew Jackson, Elizabeth Hutchinson; Van Buren, Maria Hoes; Harrison, Elizabeth Bassett; Tyler, Mary Armistead; Polk, Jane Knox; Taylor, Sarah Strother; Fillmore, Phœbe Millard; Pierce, Anna Kendrick; Buchanan, Elizabeth Speer; Lincoln, Nancy Hanks; Johnson, Mary McDonough; Grant, Hannah Simpson; Hayes, Sophia Birchard; Garfield, Eliza Ballou; Arthur, Malvina Stone; Cleveland, Annie Neal; Harrison, Elizabeth Irwin; McKinley, Nancy Campbell Allison.

Steam or hot water, affirms the "Scientific American," will open envelopes closed with mucilage and even a wafer; a hot iron or a spirit lamp dissolves sealing wax, an impression in plaster having been taken of the seal. By the combined use of wafer and sealing wax, however, all attempts to open the letter otherwise than by force can be frustrated. All that is necessary is to close the letter first with a small well-moistened wafer, and to pierce the latter with a coarse needle (the same applies to mucilage), whereupon sealing wax may be used over it in the usual manner. This seal can neither be opened by dry heat nor by moisture.

A syndicate composed of capitalists and men of influence in Europe and America was formed recently for the purpose of acquiring and operating mining claims in the different gold-bearing sections of Canada. It is said to include Ogden Mills, J. P. Morgan, John Mackay, L. Z. Leiter of Chicago, and the Duke of Teck. At different periods within the last thirty years gold has been discovered in various parts of Ontario, and ineffective attempts have been made to mine it, but either through lack of enterprise or capital no satisfactory results were obtained. The mineral belt of the province is more than 1,000 miles long, extending from the St. Lawrence river to the Lake of the Woods, and has an average width of 100 miles. Although easily accessible by rail and water, it has been less explored and is less known than any other mineral-bearing tract of equal extent in the world.

A chemist who recently visited the British Aluminum Co.'s works at Foyers expressed the conviction that the man who discovers a cheap and easy method of obtaining pure aluminum will make his name live for ever, because he will give us a metal not affected by water, atmospheric air, or the stronger organic acids, non-magnetic, and one-third the weight of iron—a metal, moreover, of which the mother-substance is "scattered all around, thick as sand by the shore and limitless as the sea."

William Tell, says a contemporary, has dwindled into a myth. Rousseau's tomb, which has been the bourne of so many pilgrimages during the last hundred years, has now been discovered to be untenanted, and now Bonivard, the "Prisoner of Chillon," so beautifully sung of by Lord Byron, is shown to be something very much akin to a fraud. Visitors to the old Castle of Chillon, on the Lake of Geneva, have long gazed with reverent eyes on the track worn in the stone pavement around the pillar to which the captive was chained during his long incarceration. This year the famous footprints mysteriously disappeared. An inquiry was made in the Cantonal Legislature as to what had become of them. Thereupon M. Vecqurat, Councillor of State, rose and unblushingly explained that they had never existed at all, but were artificially manufactured to satisfy the demands of a sentimental public. This year the usual repairs were done so late that there was no time to renew this venerable sham.

Prof. Lippman, of Paris, the "Scientific American" states, gave, on December 18, an interesting lecture before the Photographic Society in London on the process of photographing objects in natural colors. He declares that he has solved the problem of directly fixing colors with a single exposure. After the sensitive side of the plate or film has been rendered grainless and transparent it is brought

into contact with a metallic mirror. The contact is effected by a falling slide from behind with mercury, which, after the exposure, is let down into a reservoir, the plate being taken out for development, which is managed in the ordinary way. The result is a negative upon which, as the process of drying goes on, the colors appear true and bright in proportion as the exposure and development have been correct. Several specimens were shown, and the effect obtained was excellent.

It is possible, observes a contemporary, to put any construction one pleases upon the act of our government in sending the battleship "Maine" to Havana. Of course the sensational newspapers have made the most of it, and even asserted that the vessel was sent to protect Consul-General Lee, in response to his earnest request. There is not the slighest truth in these reports. The explanation given out by the navy department is that affairs are now in such a condition that there is no reason why our ships should not call occasionally at Cuban ports as they used to, and as the ships of other nations now do. It may be that this is all there is to it; or it may be that the recent disturbances in Havana have made our government a little uneasy about the security of Americans there. No sensible person believes that any belligerent purpose is in view. Neither the Spanish minister nor the Madrid government has shown any disquietude over the matter, and the Spanish authorities at Havana have received the vessel with punctilious politeness.

When a large number of crickets are chirping at night in the field, they do so synchronously, keeping time as if led by the wand of a conductor. Prof. A. E. Dolbear says, in "The American Naturalist," that the rate of chirp seems to be entirely determined by the temperature, and this to such a degree that the temperature can be estimated when the number of chirps per minute is known. At a temperature of 60° F. the rate was found to be 80 a minute, and at 70° F. it was 120 a minute; this gives a change of four chirps a minute for each change of one degree.

The death, at Genoa, Italy, of Mary Cowden-Clarke occurred January 13. The great work by which she will be remembered is her "Complete Concordance to Shakespeare." Mrs. Clarke was born in London, June 22, 1809; she was the eldest daughter of the composer and vocalist Vincent Novello. In 1828 she married Charles Cowden-Clarke. Together they spent sixteen years in the compilation of the great "Concordance," first published in London in 1846. Her services to Shakespearean literature by this publication have been widely acknowledged. Among the tokens of appreciation bestowed upon her was a memorial from America. Mrs. Clarke was the author of several other works, and in 1869 brought out an annotated edition of Shakespeare's plays.

The first report to the State Department from United States Consul-General Goodnow at Shanghai contains a warning to American railroad men not to go to China for employment. Says he: "The American invites starvation who comes here without a definite contract of employment with some reputable firm before he leaves America. I must advise United States railway employes that there is at present no market for their labor in China, and should more roads be constructed there will be a market only if these roads are built by Americans."

In order to show the close connection between the region and the social and industrial life of the people, says the "Washington Star," the department of ethnology of the National Museum has constructed a relief map in plaster, colored to show the geological features of Southwest Colorado, Southern and Central Utah as far as Salt Lake, nearly all of Arizona, and New Mexico as far east as the Rio Grande River extends. This area is sometimes called the arid region, also the Pueblo country. It includes the territory of cliff dwellers, cave dwellers, crater dwellers, mesa dwellers and other portions of the Pueblo land. In this region are the basins of the lower Colorado, the Little Colorado, the Gila and Rio Grande rivers. While this territory differs, from the buffalo plains on the east and from the coast area of Colorado on the west, it also possesses a remarkable variety of its own, so that combined in only one Pueblo region there are half a dozen types, shown by houses, pottery, basketry, and modes of living. The map is marked to express these varieties. A separate court at the museum, with its galleries, will embrace the ethnical features of this map, consisting of figures and groups, models of various types of houses, and separate cases, in which each special art is shown in its natural arid region.

January 17th last, says a writer in "Harper's Weekly," was fairy godfather's day at the Baker chocolate works in Milton, Massachusetts. On that evening was distributed the $43,000 left by the will of the late Henry L. Pierce to the employees of the business of which he was manager. Two hundred and forty-five men and one hundred and eighty-five women met the officers of the corporation in a large room in one of the mills, and, after a supper and some discourse from Mr. Pierce's executor, each received a check for one hundred dollars. The oldest employee received a special legacy of $2000. It is not recalled that there was ever a testator whose testamentary provisions gave more acute satisfaction to more of his personal acquaintances than those of Mr. Pierce. There has been no audible grumbling about his will. He did everything that was expected of him, and a great deal that was not expected, surprising very many people, and disappointing none — unless, possibly, some members of one of the learned professions — for as yet there has been no hint of a lawsuit over his will. The will ran over with miscellaneous kindness and benevolence. Mr. Pierce ought to have kept a school for testators whose purposes were philanthropic. If Stephen Girard, A. T. Stewart, Samuel Tilden, and Daniel B. Fayerweather could have sat under his instructions awhile, the memory of all of them would be sweeter, and the general public would be a gainer by a good many millions of useful money. Is there not some one living who has had experience of wills and is competent, by disposition and knowledge, to open such a class for the instruction of testators? Might not Mr. Carnegie undertake it, or Mr. Pierpont Morgan?

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THE WORLD OF THOUGHT:

ABOUT BOOKS AND THEIR AUTHORS

A New English Lexicon

The most intense "Britisher," to use a Cis-Atlantic term, and the greatest stickler for the supremacy of English achievement in the realm of literature, must admit that in the compilation of lexicons of the English language, English effort has been immeasurably distanced by American industry and enterprise. In admitting so much, it is, of course, not to be supposed that English philology, which deservedly stands high, is thereby discredited or that English scholarship and letters do not really hold the high place claimed for them. Both English philology and English scholarship stand to-day, as in the past, in a pre-eminent position among peoples speaking the English tongue. Lexicography in England, moreover, has a history and a record of achievement of which the Briton need never be ashamed. We go further and say, that in lexicons for the masses, England is admirably served, and, considering the qualities of usefulness, accuracy, and cheapness, the English popular dictionaries of Stormonth, Chambers, Nuttall, Cassells, Nelson, and Annandale, are most meritorious and, indeed, admirable productions. When we have said this, however, we fear that we have well nigh exhausted our good words on behalf of English lexicographic publishing.

It is true that there are greater enterprises in English lexicography than those we have mentioned. There are the works of Richardson, Latham, Todd, Johnson, Walker, Ogilvie [now Annandale's revision of the Imperial Dictionary], and the auxiliary productions of Skeat, Trench, Wedgwood, and others, not to speak of the greatest enterprise of all — the new Historical Dictionary of the Language now in course of publication, based on materials collected by the Oxford Philological Society. But just here we note the contrast in this matter between the position of the Englishman and that of his kinsman on this side of the Atlantic. He has, as yet, no exhaustive monumental work like the "Century Dictionary," no book of an all-satisfying requirement like the "Standard Dictionary," no single volume source that will yield him so much satisfaction even as will the "International Webster." Such books as he has require others to supplement them, to be of anything like adequate service to the scholar or the professional student of the language. How gratifying, therefore, is our contrasted position.

We have been led to these thoughts by the receipt from the publishers (Funk & Wagnalls Co. New York) of a popular adaptation of the "Standard Dictionary," which appeared two years ago, under the chief editorship of Dr. Francis A. March, and which has been received with hearty and well-merited approval by all scholars and students of the language. The new work, which is designated "The Students' Standard Dictionary," appears to us to be, in most respects, a thoroughly good and useful lexicon for the purposes of general reference. To those who cannot afford the larger and fuller work, or desire for desk or home use a more compact dictionary, "The Students' Standard" will be found an excellent and meritorious production. Dr. Fernald, the editor, has exercised a good deal of judgment in making the abridgment, for within the 900 and odd octavo pages, "embracing the orthography, pronunciation, meaning, and etymology of over 60,000 words and phrases, with 6,593 synonyms, 2,000 antonyms, and 1,225 pictorial illustrations," there is a vast amount of lexicographic matter of the highest service to the student of the language. Its moderate price ($2.00) brings the work within the reach of the most modest purse, while the supplemental matter (chiefly the Appendix of Proper Names) will be found of high educational value. Like Stormonth's Dictionary, it handily groups under the stem word many of the inflected forms and phrases, and these are readily caught by the eye by means of black letter type, and, moreover, are syllabified and accented for pronunciation. The work very commendably also gives the conservative spellings of words, as well as the radical "Websterianisms," now happily going out of fashion. The derivations and definitions, so far as we have tested the work, appear to be scholarly and accurate, and free from the defects inseparable from most enterprises of the kind.

"American and British Authors"

There is considerable merit in the text-book on Literature, covering the field of both American and British authors, prepared for schools and private study by Mr. Frank V. Irish (Columbus, O.). Within its necessarily prescribed limits, its survey of the chief men of letters is interesting, though it is strongest in the presentation of facts relating to the personal lives of the authors. Critical estimates of the writers, and any indication of their place in literature, are hardly attempted by the editor, though this lack is made good in part by quotations from critics. In the American division

the authors dealt with are chiefly the poets and essayists, with a few of the early novelists. The historians are too briefly despatched, and there is in neither division any space given to science. The contemporary writers also fare badly: beyond the enumeration of their names and principal writings, in addenda to the two parts of the book, the writer has given us nothing.

In the treatment of the historians, we should like to have seen a distinctive indication of the themes and periods which have employed their pens. It is of little service to tell the reader that Froude and Macaulay wrote on English history, without indicating the fragments of it with which these great writers severally dealt. Nor is it sufficient to quote the chief works of Prescott, Motley, and Parkman without an explanation of the countries and the eras which they have illumined by their writings. The personal facts in the careers of some of the authors discussed are in several instances inadequate. In the sketch of Macaulay, there is nothing said of his political career, while in the references to the writers and censors who have dealt with Carlyle, no mention is made of Mrs. Oliphant, the most just and sympathetic of all of the seer's critics. In the few lines devoted to Herbert Spencer, Dr. James Martineau, the historians Lecky and Goldwin Smith, Cardinal Newman, and Prof. John Fiske, there is no word of their more notable writings. Nor do we find any account of Tyndall, Asa Gray, Dana, the geologist, Justin Winsor, or of John Bach McMaster, and other conspicuous modern authors. We are told that Besant, the novelist, was knighted, but nothing is said of Seeley, the historian, having won like honor, that Macaulay and Tennyson were Peers, or that Newman was a Cardinal of the Roman Church. But in the mass of other and more important matter in the book these are slight defects, as are the misspellings Wolf, the general (page 180), Rosetti (p. 336), Marryat (p. 334), and Frederick Harrison (p. 333). Robertson, the historian, was born at Borthwick, not Bostwick, Scotland.

"American Contributions to Civilisation"

The series of Essays and Addresses, compiled from his writings, by President Eliot of Harvard University, under the title quoted in the margin (New York: The Century Co.), is marked by the thoughtfulness, the practical aims, and the strong commonsense characteristic of the President of the country's most learned institution. They have also certain distinctions of style and the luminous qualities of a clear-headed, practical man; and, above all, that characteristic which commends the Essays to all intelligent readers throughout the Republic—their thorough American spirit. It is this national quality, coupled with the democratic handling of the themes, which brings the author into close sympathy with his readers, and makes his contributions, whether speeches or addresses, distinctively popular. There is nothing abstruse or even academic in the volume, as the titles of the Essays will in part reveal. They treat of such topics as "The Happy Life," "Why we Honor the Puritans," "A Republican Gentleman," "Equality in a Republic," "The Forgotten Millions," "Some Reasons why the American Republic May Endure," 'The Working of the American Democracy," "Present Disadvantages of Rich Men," "One Remedy for Municipal Misgovernment," and "Wherein Popular Education Has Failed." One of the papers, a brief but hearty tribute to the heroes of the Civil War, we take the liberty of reproducing elsewhere in the present issue of SELF CULTURE. The address which gives the title to the book treats of five characteristic contributions of America to civilization, viz.: Peace-keeping, religious toleration, the development of manhood suffrage, the welcoming of newcomers, and the diffusion of well-being. These are ably discussed and interestingly dwelt upon, though in the first of the characteristics it is not yet manifestly clear how much America has done towards making arbitration a substitute for war. Neither, in regard to the fourth characteristic, does it seem to be a present quality in our people, whatever it has been in the past, to be hospitable towards newcomers.

Space prevents our taking up the other addresses in detail. There are two, however, we would specially commend to the attention of readers of the work, namely, the paper on Popular Education, and the address (delivered at the Woman's College, Baltimore, Md.) on "The Happy Life." With the first of these subjects President Eliot is admirably well fitted to deal, and it is important to note the chief defect which he points out as the cause of failure in our educational systems—viz.; that there is too much reliance on authority and too little appeal to reason. The habit of obedience to authority, while necessary up to a certain stage, and the passive reception of imposed opinions, are inconsistent, in President Eliot's view, with an effective development of reasoning power and of independence of thought. Argumentation, he believes, needs to be taught systematically in schools, and not in the form of a theoretical topic, but in concrete form, through the study of arguments which have weight in determining the course of trade industries or

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public affairs, or have made epochs in discovery, invention, or the progress of science. It is high time, he adds, that we taught the young by direct practice and high examples to reason justly and effectively. The paper on "The Happy Life" is, like many other of the addresses in the volume, full of wise and stimulating thought, directed to practical ends. We warmly commend the volume to our readers.

Drummond's "The Ideal Life"

A volume of addresses, posthumously published, has just appeared from the pen of the late Prof. Henry Drummond, author of the justly famed work, "Natural Law in the Spiritual World." The volume, which is entitled "The Ideal Life" (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), is prefaced by two interesting memorial sketches of the author by Ian Maclaren and Robertson Nicoll — two of Prof. Drummond's most intimate friends. We learn from these sketches many interesting facts of the author's career, of his education and bent in life, of his Evangelistic labors, and, most interesting of all — his beautiful, almost saintly, character. Of recent years there have been few lives that have been spent more fruitfully in bringing young men, of earnest mood and student habits, to the Kingdom of God, and fewer still who have so impressed the mind of the age with the influence of religion in science, or made more real the notion that the laws of the natural and the spiritual world are one. The debt that hundreds of thousands owe to Prof. Drummond wherever his two famous books, "Natural Law in the Spiritual World" and "The Ascent of Man" are known, must be great, while no reader of them, and of such lay sermons as "The Greatest Thing in the World," can fail to be touched by the earnestness and spiritual-mindedness, as well as by the rare ability, of their writer. The addresses gathered together in the volume before us have all the charm that characterize their author's earlier writings. As helps to the attainment of a higher ethical and spiritual life few books of the time can hardly be more fruitful.

Parkman's "Jesuits in N. America"

Another instalment of the beautifully illustrated "Champlain" edition of the works of the late Francis Parkman, historian of the struggle of France and England for dominion on this continent, has reached us, through the courtesy of the publishers, Little, Brown & Co., Boston. The two new volumes deal with the labors of the French Jesuits in Canada in the seventeenth century — a tragic story, the materials of which are, in the main, found in the voluminous but important records known as the Jesuit "Relations." Of the value of the latter, which are now being translated by a Cleveland firm of publishers, Mr. Parkman bears this testimony: "Though the productions of men of scholastic training, they are simple and often crude in style, as might be expected of narratives hastily written in Indian lodges or rude mission-houses in the forest, amid annoyances and interruptions of all kinds. . . . The closest examination has left me no doubt that these missionaries wrote in perfect good faith, and that the "Relations" hold a high place as authentic and trustworthy historical documents."

It is of these pious, scholarly French missionaries — men of strenuous and self-sacrificing devotion — that the historian treats of in the present instalment of his brilliant narratives. The volumes cover the era between 1625 and 1670, when French Canada was the theatre of active missionary operations conducted by the Jesuits, chiefly in the Huron country, so calamitously desolated in 1648–49 by the Iroquois. The early part of the first volume is devoted to an account of the two great Indian tribes — the Hurons and the Iroquois — who were the chief native factors in the long and bitter struggle. It was a struggle which the Indian did not fail to note meant the ultimate exclusion of his race from the forests and hunting-grounds of the New World. Hence the policy, on the part of the Iroquois Confederacy at least, to stand aloof from the two European powers in the contest, not from sullen indifference, but from an astute forecast of the results of the struggle on the native tribes of the continent. The fight at this period was not on yet, however, and the scenes the reader has to witness in Mr. Parkman's graphic pages chiefly relate to inter-tribal feuds. The incidents in the drama are magnificently recounted, as are those that deal with the missionary efforts of the Jesuits among the Iroquois cantonments in the Mohawk Valley. No tale is more full of tragedy, mingled with a devotion almost sublime, than that set forth by Mr. Parkman in these two picturesquely written and thrilling volumes. To the historian as well as to those interested in missions, full of interest are the descriptive portraits from Mr. Parkman's pen of the missionary-martyrs, Le Jeune, Brébeuf, Isaac Jogues, and the other disciples of Loyola who, with their lives, carried the cross into the wilderness at this era. Not less interesting is the story of the founding in Canada of those sanctuaries of the Church which became refuges for the haunted remnants of the Huron nation, and the narrative of the labors and devotion of the pious dames of Old France who used their wealth for the establishing of convents and hospitals for the enfeebled or persecuted of their faith.

G. M. A.

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EDUCATIONAL STUDIES FOR YOUTH:

SYNONYMS DISCRIMINATED* (Continued)

Fable, *n.*, a feigned tale or story intended to enforce some moral precept; a fictitious narrative.

"*Fable* may be divided into the probable, the allegorical, and the marvellous."—*Pope.*

Synonym: tale, moral, romance, fiction, invention, allegory.

Antonym: history, narrative, fact.

Syn. dis.: Different species of composition are expressed by the above words: the *fable* is allegorical; its actions are natural, but its agents are imaginary; the *tale* is fictitious, but not imaginary; both the agents and actions are drawn from the passing scenes of life. The *tale* when compared with the *novel* is a simple kind of fiction; it consists of but few persons in the drama; whilst the *novel*, on the contrary, admits of every possible variety in characters. The *tale* is told without much art or contrivance to keep the reader in suspense, without any depth of plot or importance in the catastrophe; the *novel* affords the greatest scope for exciting an interest by the rapid succession of events, the involvements of interests, and the unravelling of its plot. If the *novel* awakens the attention, the *romance* rivets the whole mind and engages the affections; it presents nothing but what is extraordinary and calculated to fill the imagination.

Factious, *a.*, disposed to raise opposition on frivolous grounds.

"He complained of the endless talking, *factious* squabbling," etc.—*Macaulay.*

Syn.: turbulent, seditious, crusty, litigious.

Ant.: genial, agreeable, complaisant, loyal, harmonious.

Syn. dis.: *Factious* is an epithet to characterize the tempers of men; *turbulent* and *seditious* characterize their conduct. The *factious* man is given to raising dissension and opposition, generally for the ends of his private interest. The *seditious* man is one who excites disturbance in the State or community on questions where political principle or feeling are concerned; the *factious* man is troublesome; the *seditious* man dangerous.

Faculty, *n.*, the power of doing anything; a power or capacity of the mind.

Syn.: ability, talent, gift, endowment.

Syn. dis.: *Faculty* is a power derived from nature; *ability* may be derived from circumstances or otherwise; *faculty* is a permanent possession; it is held by a certain tenure; the *ability* is an incidental possession. The powers of seeing and hearing are *faculties;* health, strength, and fortune are *abilities*. The *faculties* include all the endowments of body or mind, which are the inherent properties of the being, as when we speak of a man's retaining his *faculties*, or having his *faculties* impaired; the *abilities* include, in the aggregate, whatever a man is able to do; hence, we speak of a man's *abilities* in speaking, writing, learning, and the like; *talents* are the particular endowments of the mind which belong to the individual, and denote a higher order of mental power than that usually represented by the term *ability*.

Fair, *adj.*, just, upright, candid, impartial.

Syn.: honest, equitable, reasonable.

Ant.: dishonorable, fraudulent, unjust, unfair.

Syn. dis.: *Fair* is said of persons or things; *honest* mostly characterizes the person, either as to his conduct or his principle. When *fair* is employed as an epithet to qualify things, or to designate their nature, it approaches very near in signification to *equitable* and *reasonable;* they are all opposed to what is unjust; what is *fair* and *equitable* is so in relation to all circumstances; what is *reasonable* is so of itself. There is a dignity and sternness about the term *just* which does not belong to *fair*, as if it connected itself more directly with personal and responsible action. So prizes are said to be *fairly* won and *justly* awarded.

Faithless, *adj.*, characterized by a want of good faith; not to be trusted.

Syn.: perfidious, treacherous, false.

Ant.: faithful, loyal, true.

Syn. dis.: A *faithless* man is faithless only for his own interest; a *perfidious* man is expressly so to the injury of another. A friend is *faithless* who consults his own interest in time of need; he is *perfidious* who profits by the confidence reposed in him to plot mischief against the one to whom he has made vows of friendship. *Faithlessness* does not suppose any particular efforts to deceive; it consists of merely violating that faith which the relation ought to produce; *perfidy* is never so complete as when it has most effectually assumed the mask of sincerity; *perfidy* may lie in the will to do; *treachery* lies altogether in the thing done.

Fame, *n.*, report or opinion widely diffused; notoriety or celebrity.

"And the *fame* thereof went abroad into all that land."—*Matthew* ix. 26.

Syn.: reputation, renown, repute.

Ant.: silence, suppression, disgrace, disrepute.

Syn. dis.: *Fame* may be applied to any object, good, bad, or indifferent, and may even be used of passing rumors. *Reputation* belongs essentially to persons, and not to the subject-matter of rumor; it implies some amount of publicity of character. *Repute* differs from *reputation* in applying to things as well as persons; he is a man of high *reputation;* or his character is of good or bad *repute*. *Renown* is employed of deeds and characters or persons; it is illustrious *reputation*, but is confined, as *reputation* is not, to signal deeds. A man may have a high *reputation* for integrity, but he is *renowned* for great achievements or for moral excellencies.

Fancy, *n.*, the power by which the mind forms to itself images and representations of things, persons, or scenes of being; creative faculty.

Syn.: imagination, conception.

*Continued from page 283, Vol. VI., No. 3, for December, 1897.

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Syn. dis.: *Fancy* is that faculty which reproduces the impressions caused by external objects, combines and modifies them anew, and recalls them for purposes of mental delectation. *Imagination* is a grander, graver exercise of mind than *fancy*. The historical novels of Scott exhibit both *fancy* and *imagination*; *fancy*, where scenes are introduced which are not, or in all their details are not, historically true, but such as might have occurred; *imagination*, where, upon limited historical information, he completes the outline of a character or an event by the play of energetic but accurate creations. *Conception* differs from both in being more creative, and having for its object the production of some reality, as the *conceptions* of the poet, the painter, and the sculptor. *Fancy* may be wholly unreal; *imagination* must be in part real; *conception* is altogether real.

Fatigue, *n.*, exhaustion from bodily or mental labor or exertion.

Syn.: weariness, lassitude, exhaustion, languor.

Ant.: freshness, vigor, activity.

Syn. dis.: *Fatigue* is the feeling of being tired out either in mind or in body; *weariness* is a wearing out of the strength or the spirits; *lassitude*, a general relaxation of the animal frame. The latter differs from *languor*, which might be thrown off by exercise, in being actual weakness and relaxation of the physical powers. *Weariness* may be the result of prolonged physical effort as after a long journey, or it may be the result of mental toil over a dry, dispiriting, and uninteresting subject.

Feasible, *adj.*, that may or can be done, performed, or effected; possible to be done.

"But, fair although and *feasible* it seem,
Depend not much upon your golden dream."—*Cowper*.

Syn.: possible, practicable, contrivable.

Ant.: impossible, unmanageable, unallowable.

Syn. dis.: *Feasible* denotes that which may be effected by human agency. *Possible* is of wider signification, and means capable of existing or occurring; *feasible* belongs to the province of action only; *possible* to that of thought and action also, as when we say, 'it is possible, but not probable.' *Practicable* is very like *feasible;* but *practicable* refers, in the main, to matters of moral practice, while *feasible* belongs to physical action, or human plans and designs. For instance, we might say, 'a feasible,' or 'a practicable scheme;' but we could only say 'a practicable,' not 'a feasible virtue.' *Practicable* has the further sense of capable of being made use of; as, 'at this season it is practicable to go by the road,' or 'the breach was reported practicable.'

Feeling, *n.*, sense of touch; emotion; tenderness or sensibility of mind.

Syn.: sense, sensation, perception, susceptibility.

Ant.: insensibility, callousness, coldness, insensateness.

Syn. dis.: *Feeling* is the general, *sensation* and *sense* are the special, terms; the *feeling* is either physical or moral; the *sensation* is mostly physical; the *sense* physical in the general, and moral in the particular, application. The *feeling*, in a moral sense, has its seat in the heart; it is transitory and variable; *sense* has its seat in the understanding; it is permanent and regular. *Sensibility* is the capacity of feeling or perception; *susceptibility* is commonly used in the sense of *quick sensibility*, or the capacity of it. *Emotion* is a strong excitement of feeling, tending to manifest itself by its effect upon the body. *Sense* is employed in the widest way to comprise the whole range of mental and physical sensation; as, 'the things of time and sense.' *Perception* is the conscious reference of *sensation* to the cause which produced it.

Feign (*fān*), *v.*, to make a show of doing; to assume, pretend, or dissemble.

Syn.: pretend, simulate, dissimulate, affect, counterfeit.

Syn. dis.: *Feign* is to give fictitious existence, or to give an impression of something as actual or true which is not so. To *pretend* is to put forward what is unreal or untrue in such a way that it may be accepted as true: *feigning* commonly misleads the observation; *pretence* the understanding. *Delusion* is the very essence of *feigning;* but to *pretend* is etymologically and in its oldest sense simply to put forward; then, derivatively, to put forward in a cloak, or with false purpose. To *simulate* is to put on and systematically exhibit what are the natural signs and indications of feeling, a character or a part which do not really belong to one; to act a *feigned* part. *Dissimulate* is the feigned concealment of what really *exists* in one's character or feeling; as *simulation* is the feigned exhibition of what does *not exist*.

Foresight, *n.*, the act or faculty of foreseeing; a provident care for futurity.

Syn.: forethought, forecast, premeditation, planning.

Ant.: improvidence, unwariness, heedlessness.

Syn. dis.: *Foresight*, from seeing before, denotes the simple act of the mind in seeing a thing before it happens; *forecast*, from casting the thoughts onward, signifies coming at the knowledge of a thing beforehand by means of calculation; *premeditation*, from *meditate*, signifies obtaining the same knowledge by force of meditating or reflecting deeply. *Foresight* is the general and indefinite term; we employ it either on ordinary or extraordinary occasions; *forecast* and *premeditation* mostly in the latter case; all business requires *foresight;* State concerns require *forecast;* by *foresight* and *forecast* we guard against evils and provide for contingencies; by *premeditation* we guard against errors of conduct.

Fraud, *n.*, a deceitful act by which the right or interest of another is injured.

Syn.: guile, deceit, cheating, imposition, deception.

Ant.: truth, honesty, genuineness.

Syn. dis.: *Fraud* and *guile* have in common the idea of duplicity, or deceit in action; but they differ in the motives in which they directly originate. *Fraud* aims at the disadvantage of another, or is at least such a deceiving of another as shall in some way advantage oneself and cause injury, loss, or humiliation to the one on whom it is practiced. *Guile* is a wily regard for one's own interests, and is more an abstract quality than *fraud; guile* is in the nature, *fraud* is embodied in the act.

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Frequently, *adv.*, many times; at short intervals.

Syn.: often, commonly, habitually, generally, usually, ordinarily.

Ant.: seldom, rarely, casually, uncommonly.

Syn. dis.: *Often* relates to a standard of frequency implied or expressed, and has a sort of fixed value; *frequently* denotes the simple numerous repetition of anything without any standard to which such repetition can be referred. Uncalculated recurrences occur *frequently;* calculated recurrences (if so it be) occur *often. Commonly* denotes that kind of frequency, the non-occurrence of which would create surprise; *ordinarily*, that which follows, or seems to follow, a fixed order or rule; *generally*, that which occurs in the majority of similiar cases, so that the contrary would be an exception or a specific deviation; *usually*, that which occurs in such a way that the idea of custom is connected either with the occurrence itself or with the observation of him who experiences or takes cognizance of it; *habitually*, that which exhibits both the force and the frequency of habit, and usually its frequency alone.

Fulfil, *v.*, to complete or carry into effect; to perform what is promised, expected, or foretold.

Syn.: discharge, realize, accomplish, complete.

Ant.: neglect, ignore, disappoint, falsify.

Syn. dis.: To *fulfil* is literally to fill quite full, that is, to bring about *full* to the wishes of a person; *accomplish* is to bring perfection, but without reference to the wishes of any one; to *realize* is to make *real*, namely, whatever has been aimed at. The application of these terms is evident from their explanations; the wishes, the expectations, the intentions, and the promises of an individual are appropriately said to be *fulfilled;* national projects or undertakings, prophecies, etc., are said to be *accomplished;* the fortune or the prospects of an individual, or whatever results successfully from specific efforts, is said to be *realized.*

Gain, *n.*, anything gained or obtained as an advantage, or in return for labor or the employment of resources.

Syn.: profit, emolument, lucre, acquisition.

Ant.: loss, detriment, forfeiture.

Syn. dis.: *Gain* is here a general term; the other terms are specific: the *gain* is that which comes to a man, agreeable to his wish, or as the fruit of his exertions; the *profit* is that which accrues from the thing. *Emolument* is a species of *gain* from labor, or a collateral *gain;* of this description are a man's emoluments from an office. *Gain* and *profit* are also taken in an abstract sense; *lucre* is never used otherwise; but the latter always conveys a bad meaning; it is, strictly speaking, unhallowed *gain.*

Glad, *adj.*, expressive of or indicating pleasure or satisfaction.

Syn.: pleased, joyful, joyous, delighted, cheerful, gratified, happy.

Ant.: grieved, depressed, dispirited, sorrowful, unhappy.

Syn. dis.: *Glad* may denote merely a lively and momentary sentiment; *pleased* and *joyful* seem rather to denote a gentle, but a more lasting feeling; all, however, express more or less lively sentiments. *Glad* is less vivid than *joyful*, and more so than *cheerful. Pleased* may denote either the pleasure of joy or the pleasure of satisfaction or approbation; *gratified* implies a sense of pleasure due to the behavior of another; *delighted* is a stronger term than *glad* or *pleased* for expressing the same kind of feeling.

THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS (Continued from p. 475, February No.)

FROM } Off, being but a variation of of, some-
OFF } times interchanges with from; as,

He fell off his horse.

He fell from his horse.

IN } Of and in sometimes interchange; as,
OF } Genteel of figure, or in figure; easy of address, or in address; low of stature, or in stature.

IN } Applied to place.
AT } In should be used before the names of countries and cities (especially large cities); as, "He was born in London, and died in New York."

At should be used before the names of houses, villages, or small places, and foreign cities far distant; as, "Milton was educated at Christ's College;" "We live at Akron, Ohio;" "He died at Hong Kong."

At may also be used before the name of a city regarded as a mere point of locality.

An English king was crowned at Paris.—*Macaulay.*

It soon appeared that the government was really directed not at Dublin, but in London.—*Macaulay.*

After the word touch, at is used; after arrive, either at or in; after the verb to be, at or in (also to, when motion is implied); as, "We have been at, or in (or to), Chicago;" "When were you at, or in (not to), Duluth?"

In (not on) is proper before the name of a street; and at before the number. See IN, ON.

The incredible sums which were collected at the custom-house in Thames Street.—*Macaulay.*

We should say "in the East," "in the South," not "at the East," "at the South."

IN, AT, ON, are applied to time:

At the hour; on the day; in the year. "On the morning of June 5th." "At nine o'clock on [or in] the morning of June 5th."

IN } After verbs denoting motion, and when
INTO } entrance is to be expressed, into (not in) should be used; as,

Come into the parlor, Miss.

They walked into the park.

They took a walk in the park.

The book was introduced into many schools.

To denote a change from one form or state to another, into is used.

He is led into the belief of such fables.

The writings were then put into good shape.

Formerly in was much used where only into is now proper.

After some verbal notions in or into may be used almost interchangeably. But into marks more decidedly motion, entrance, or change.

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We say break, cut, tear in, into, or to pieces; divided into two parts; burst into tears; fell into convulsions, into fever, into fits, in love.

"Into the bargain" (an idiomatic phrase).

He whispered in my ear.—*Addison*.

His conduct came in question.

IN } In (not on) should be used before the
ON } name of a street.

His deserted mansion in Duke Street.
—*Macaulay*.

In or on the dollar, pound, etc.

The English use in, as, "Five pence in the pound."

The land tax was reduced from four shillings in the pound to three.—*Macaulay*.

We say in (not on) a steamboat, the cars, the train, a horse-car; in a page (preferable to on a page).

Matter for censure in every page.—*Macaulay*.

If, in spite of this, I presume to inscribe your name in its first page.—*J. H. Newman*.

IN } Within means "inside of," "inside
WITHIN } the limits of," and is the opposite of without. In some instances, it is interchangeable with in. But within is the more emphatic word.

Within this lone abode . . . were seated two persons.—*Bulwer*.

In my Father's house are many mansions.
—*John* xiv. 2.

Is Mr. Brown within (or in)?

Within a few hours, or in a few hours; within his power, or in his power, etc.

OF. See FROM and TO.

ON } On and upon have run parallel in the
UPON } same sense from the earliest time, and are now generally used interchangeably. In some cases upon is more euphonious, and therefore to be preferred; but in most cases on is preferable. It has in great part taken the place of upon. We say on Thursday, rather than upon Thursday; played on the piano, instead of upon etc.

Low lispings of the summer rain,
Dropping on the ripened grain,
As once upon the flower.—*Longfellow*.

On should not be used before the words "yesterday," "to-morrow," "to-day," "this morning," "last night."

The fight yesterday [not on yesterday] was very obstinate.

But we write preferably, "On the 28th of July."

ON. See IN.

PREVIOUS TO } Both these prepositional
PREVIOUSLY TO } phrases are in good use in the sense of before.

The works of its [the French Academy's] members were to be brought before it previous to publication.—*M. Arnold*.

A policy . . . his friends had advised previous to 1710.—*J. H. Newman*.

Previous to this the Anglo-Saxon writers had done very well without it.—*Earle's "Philology of the English Tongue."*

I have heard of a work of a foreign officer who took a survey of the European armies previously to the revolutionary war.
—*J. H. Newman*.

THROUGH } With reference to space, through-
THROUGHOUT } out is more emphatic than through. See FOR.

The names of Bede and Alcuin were justly celebrated throughout Europe.—*Macaulay*.

Ye shall keep it a feast throughout your generations.—*Exod.* xii. 14.

TILL } Till and until are interchangeable.
UNTIL } "Tarry till [or until] I come;" till
TO } now, until now.

From the beginning of the world to the time that now is.

TO } To denotes movement or direction toward
AT } an object. At, in its original sense, denotes nearness or presence in connection with mere locality. See AT (with), BY.

You were not at the play to-night.
—*Longfellow*.

I have been to Paris with Mrs. Sydney and Mr. and Mrs. Hibbert.—*Sydney Smith*.

[Allowable, since the idea of movement is prominent.]

I have been at (not to) Newtonville six months, and in (not to) New York three months.

He is at the State House.

We have company to supper at our house.

The family were at supper when we arrived.

Something new sets him again at work.
—*Addison*.

I was set at work
Among my maids.—*Shakespeare*.

He has been at a great deal of trouble.
—*Goldsmith*.

TO } To and of are sometimes used to express
OF } the same, or essentially the same, sense.

He was successor to Mohammed, or of Mohammed.

Nephew to the king.—*Shakespeare*.

Every man shall be welcome that is a friend to King George.—*Addison*.

TOWARD } are indistinguishable in meaning.
TOWARDS } Toweard was in Anglo-Saxon used as an adjective, and hence came towardes the genitive case. Both forms are proper but towards is in more frequent use.

UNDER } Under means lower in position,
BELOW } with the idea of being covered
BENEATH } by the upper body. It is the
UNDERNEATH } opposite of over.

Below and beneath refer to a lower position simply. They mean "in a lower place," and are the opposite of above.

These words are sometimes interchangeable.

Nobody under the moon, below the moon, or beneath the moon.

Nobody under the table or beneath the table.

His legs trembled under him, or beneath him.

"Under my signature" (idiomatic phrase).

Figuratively, we say, He is beneath our notice (not below nor under our notice.)

Underneath, etymologically under and lower, is somewhat stronger than under.

CORRECTION: By a disarrangement of the type in SELF CULTURE for January last (see "Common Errors in English Speech and Writing," foot of first column on page 376) the words *Whom* and *Who* in the sentence cited were inadvertently transposed. "*Whom* do you think him to be?" *is good English:* "*Who* do you think him to be?" *is incorrect*, though one can say with propriety "*Who* do you think he is?"—ED. S. C.

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POPULAR PAPERS ON ASTRONOMY:

OTHER WORLDS THAN OURS

It is nearly sixty years since Dr. Dick published his "Celestial Scenery," a work which ran through six editions and which still holds a place among the most delightful of popular treatises on Astronomy.

One who reads this book in connection with the latest popular works on the same subject is struck not so much by the advance which astronomy has made in the matter of discovery since the book was written, as by the change that has taken place in the views of astronomers regarding the question of the habitability of the planets. At the time when Dr. Dick wrote, and for many years afterwards, there was a deep-seated conviction in the minds of thoughtful men, whether astronomers or theologians, that not only were the moon and the planets inhabited, but that probably around those other suns which we see twinkling as stars in the depth of space were circling other habitable worlds, though owing to their enormous remoteness they were unseen and must always remain unseen by us.

These views had been entertained by Galileo, Bruno, Kepler and others among the earlier followers of Copernicus. Indeed, they seemed to be the only views tenable when once the fact had become established that the earth was merely a planet, having no greater claim on the special favor of the Creator, so far as human reason could discern, than had Venus, Jupiter, and the rest of its sister planets. Was it conceivable that an all-wise and beneficent Creator had fashioned worlds for no purpose, and what purpose could be imagined other than to provide habitations for rational and responsible beings?

The doctrine that the earth is not the only globe clothed with vegetation and teeming with animal life very soon came to be regarded as one of the most unassailable of astronomical truths. Fontenelle, the Secretary of the French Academy of Sciences, expounded and popularized this new creed in a work entitled "Conversations on the Plurality of Worlds," which was published in 1686 and was translated into the principal languages of Europe; and Huyghens published, a little later, a work in Latin supporting the same views.

The elder Herschel carried this doctrine of a plurality of worlds a step farther than had any of his predecessors, by suggesting, as not merely possible but probable, that even the sun was inhabited. From a study of sun-spots Herschel thought it likely that the sun, which he assumed to be a solid globe, was surrounded by a double envelope — an outward luminous shell of seething flame, the "photosphere," whence radiate the heat and light which vivify the earth and its sister planets, and an inner non-luminous shell of clouds, which seemed fitted to shield the surface of the globe beneath it from the intolerable heat and glare of the photosphere. What more reasonable than to suppose that the design of this inner envelope was to temper the climate of the solar globe and thus render it capable of sustaining life?

The argument from "design" is nowhere carried out more systematically and with a more evident conviction of its force than in the work of Dr. Dick, referred to above. One of the most charming pieces of celestial scenery which its author has painted for us is the night-sky of Saturn. After describing, with a wealth of detail and a measure of enthusiasm which amount almost to *naïveté*, the glorious spectacle presented by the great, revolving rings, as they would appear from different points on the planet's surface, and the added splendor of the seven moons — the eighth moon had not then been discovered — suggesting, too, as altogether likely that even the night of fourteen years' duration, caused by the shadow of the rings, as it passes alternately from one hemisphere of the planet to the other, may be a source of pleasure rather than an inconvenience to the inhabitants of the planet, by affording them their only favorable opportunity of studying the starry firmament, he thus concludes: "All these circumstances, properly considered, form of themselves a presumptive argument to prove that the sublime and exquisite contrivances connected with this planet were not intended merely to illuminate barren sands and hideous deserts, but to afford a comfortable

and magnificent habitation for thousands of millions of rational inhabitants, who employ their faculties in the contemplation of the wonders which surround them, and give to their Creator the glory which is due to his name." In another passage, speaking of the belts of Jupiter, he says: "It is absurd and preposterous to suppose, as some have done, that the changes on the surface of Jupiter are produced by physical convulsions, occasioned by earthquakes and inundations; for in such a case the globe of Jupiter would be unfit for being the peaceful abode of rational inhabitants. . . Such physical catastrophies, recurring every year on such a splendid and magnificent globe as Jupiter, would not only render it unfit for the habitation of any beings, but would imply a reflection on the wisdom and benevolence of the Creator."

Such were the views which were nearly universally entertained respecting the celestial bodies down to the middle of the present century, and such was the line of reasoning by which they were supported. When, therefore, Dr. Whewell published (anonymously) some forty years ago an essay on "The Plurality of Worlds," in which he took the ground that there is no good reason for believing that any other world than ours is inhabited, there arose from all quarters a storm of protest which could hardly have been more indignant had he attacked the most vital tenets of Christianity. Indeed, the extent to which religion was supposed to be involved in this question appears on the very title page of the book in which Sir David Brewster replied to the arguments of the unknown essayist, "More Worlds Than One; the Christian's Hope and Consolation"—a striking illustration of the change which science has steadily imposed on religious doctrine, when it is remembered that a belief in the habitability of the planets was among the heresies for which Bruno was burned at the stake.

The essay was condemned, not so much on account of the novel views of its author regarding the stars and the planets, as because he refused to admit the force of the argument from "design." Whewell insisted that instead of assuming to know the purpose of the Creator in forming worlds, we should study each case separately, and should base our judgment upon facts revealed by the telescope or deducible by mathematics, leaving the question of purpose to be dealt with later on. In a word, Whewell demanded that the question should be discussed scientifically, not philosophically; and though many of his own conclusions—such as that the four outer planets consist mainly of water and aqueous vapor, that the two inner planets are wholly without either water or air, that the sun is the largest of the celestial bodies—have not been borne out by later investigations, his essay marks the beginning of a new mode of treating this subject.

In the course of his argument Whewell called attention to one point, which until then had been entirely neglected, but which has since been made the very pivot on which the whole question turns. The element of time had been wholly left out of the discussion. The argument had proceeded as if the world—the earth and all the celestial host—had existed from the beginning as it is now and as it will be to the end of time. But Whewell pointed to the fact that geology teaches us that the earth has undergone great changes since it was first called into being, and that it has had life upon its surface during but a small portion of the whole period of its existence. It illustrates how limited was the view of geological time no more than forty years ago, that Brewster, replying to this argument, seemed to think that he made a magnanimous concession when he admitted that possibly the "six days" of creation might require to be extended to a million years.

The determination of the earth's age is a problem at which both geologists and astronomers have worked in recent years, and, while the results of different lines of investigation differ very widely among themselves, it is now held by those competent to give an opinion that the least age which can be assigned to the earth, since it has had a solid crust, is 14,000,000 years (Newcomb), while in the opinion of Lord Kelvin its age cannot be less than 80,000,000 years.

This is the earth of the geologist—the earth since it has had a solid crust. The astronomer sees it in a still earlier stage of its existence—a mass of glowing gases, vastly larger than it is now, and including within its volume the matter which was subsequently thrown off to

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form the moon. His imagination carries him back to an epoch in the past still more remote, when the earth's matter had not yet been segregated from the sun's — when, in fact, the whole solar system was in embryo as one enormous, slowly-revolving nebula. This view of the original form of the solar system is, it is true, still a matter of theory. But whatever arguments may be urged against the "Nebular Hypothesis" as it existed in the minds of Laplace and Herschel, there is now no astronomer of eminence who does not hold views respecting the antecedents of the solar system of which this may be taken as the type. This system undoubtedly has a history, which may or may not be recoverable. Its sun and its planets and satellites have not existed from the beginning as they now are. Through unknown millions of years, of ages, this solar system has been in process of development, changing from age to age, and the end is not yet; and when we come to speculate on the present condition of any particular member of it, this fact must be taken into account.

The other worlds in which we naturally take the deepest interest are the planets. They are the earth's sister-worlds. They are lighted by the same sun as shines for us; they belong to our family. They pose for us periodically as "evening" or "morning stars," and while admiring their radiant beauty or scanning their features through a telescope, one cannot repress the thought that possibly they are the homes of beings kindred with ourselves.

The progress of astronomy and geology within the last half century, and particularly within the last few years, has not been altogether favorable to this view. Two, at least, of these bodies have been shown, beyond a reasonable doubt, to be in such a condition that no life can possibly exist upon their surfaces — at least, no life of a terrestrial type, and it seems idle to speculate about imaginary types — while the cases of the others have been put into such a shape that speculation in regard to them is confined to a very narrow range. Science seems, indeed, bent upon doing for us here what critical history is doing for us in another field — destroying pleasing illusions, to replace them with hard facts, which have nothing to recommend them except that they are facts.

The most serious obstacle to supposing that any of the planets are now peopled with beings with whom we would be willing to claim kinship is raised by geology. Upon a moderate estimate the length of time during which the earth has been so cool a body that it has had continents and oceans — the time during which has been slowly forming its record of sedimentary rocks — is 10,000,000 years. It can hardly be less than this, and is probably much greater. The period of man's existence upon the earth is measured by a few thousand years. Allowing to the "stone age" the longest duration which the most exacting archæologist demands, the human period cannot have been a hundredth part of the whole geological period of the earth's life; while the historical period of man — say 5,000 years — is no more than one two-thousandth part of that long age.

While the earth has been living its geological life, the other planets have been living theirs, each independently of the rest and under circumstances peculiar to itself, and it is utterly inconceivable that they have lived so nearly at the same rate that all or even any two of them are now in the same planetary stage, not to speak of coincidences of particular periods of a few thousand years in length. More than this, there are considerations which render it little less than certain that they cannot now be all in the same condition. The life of a planet, to set aside for a moment the incidents of its surface changes, is the gradual cooling of a body intensely heated. Before the epoch at which geology takes up the earth's history, there was undoubtedly a time when the earth was a molten globe. What may have been its condition at a time still earlier, whether it was gaseous, as it must have been if the Nebular Hypothesis is true, or existed as a condensing cloud of meteorites, as the Meteoritic Theory of Sir Norman Lockyer supposes, it is not necessary now to inquire. That it was at one time molten and that for ages past it has been parting with its heat, radiating it into space, there is abundant evidence. There can hardly be a question that every other planet either now is or at some time has been similarly in a molten condition, and similarly is

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parting with its heat. Were the planets all brought into being at the same time? There is no reason to suppose that they were. On the contrary, whatever hypothesis of the mode of their creation we adopt, it seems far more likely that they were formed successively, so that their ages, reckoned from the time when they had assumed their present forms, are not the same. This is, however, a matter which we have no means of determining, and which must, therefore, be left undecided.

But even if we choose the less probable of these suppositions, namely, that the planets all started in life, so to speak, simultaneously, we are still compelled to conclude, because of their great differences in size, that they are not in the same condition at the present time. The rule that the larger a heated body is the more slowly it will cool, may be applied without hesitation to planetary bodies, and it leads to a conclusion which must not be overlooked in the present inquiry. The larger a planet is, the longer it will live—the more slowly it will go through its successive planetary stages.

To illustrate by the case of the earth and the moon, it may be assumed that at one time these two bodies were equally hot, both being liquid, or possibly gaseous, at the time of their separation and both being luminous. Their separate existence having begun, the moon, being the smaller body, must have cooled the more rapidly. According to Professor Winchell, its comparative rate of cooling, determined by a very simple mathematical process, was nearly six times that of the earth. That is to say, the moon, since its separate existence began, has lived six times as fast as the earth. "If the earth's incrustation began fourteen million years ago," says Winchell, "and the moon's began at the same time, the moon reached the present terrestrial stage eleven and two-thirds million years since. The earth was then only two-thirds through its pyrolithic age, and must at that time have been another sun to the supposable inhabitants of the moon."

It is probable, therefore, that the moon ages ago parted with the last trace of its original heat. This is the conclusion to which theory leads, and it is sustained by observation with the telescope. The pitted and otherwise broken and scarred surface of the moon point unmistakably to the former activity of volcanic fires there, on a scale, too, apparently unequalled by any like phenomena on the earth; but not the slightest indication that any of its numerous craters are now active has been detected. Apparently, too, at some former time the moon had seas and oceans, but all that now remains of them is their dried-up beds. It is altogether likely, too, that the moon at one time had an atmosphere, but of this there is no longer any trace, or if any atmosphere still remains upon the moon it is so excessively attenuated that the most careful observations have failed to detect it with certainty. Various ways of accounting for the loss of the moon's water and air have been suggested. The latest theory is that of Dr. G. Johnstone Stoney, namely, that both have been slowly dissipated into space, the water in the form of vapor, the moon's gravitational force having been insufficient to retain them permanently on its surface. The moon is certainly now a lifeless world, and probably has been such for millions of years past, though we may not unreasonably conjecture that there was a time in its history when it was clothed with vegetation and teemed with animal life.

If now we turn from the moon to the planet Jupiter, we shall find precisely the opposite state of things. The mass of Jupiter—that is, the amount of matter which it contains—is 340 times that of the earth. Hence it contained originally 340 times as much heat to be radiated into space. Its radiating surface is only fifty times as great as the earth's, so that, though it throws off its heat fifty times as fast as does the earth, it will still require more than six times as long to part with the entire quantity. If we suppose that Jupiter and the earth started on their planetary careers at the same time, it is clear that the former body must lag far behind the latter in development. And even though Jupiter may have had a start of many millions of years, it is still quite possible that the smaller body, though younger, has overtaken and passed it in the race of planet life.

Here, as in the case of the moon, the telescope supports theory.

GEO. SENECA JONES.

[*To be concluded in our next.*]

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QUESTION DEPARTMENT

To vary the interest in these series of questions, as well as to increase the educational benefits arising from their daily study in tracing them to the sources of the history, it is designed, for awhile, to group the questions under specific countries, and to withhold reference to the pages in the Britannica, or in the New Supplement thereto, where the answers may be sought. In the present series of questions (for the month of March), it may suffice to say that answers will be found either under the general article on Germany, in the E. B., or under the specific events referred to in the questions.

—ED. S. C.

GERMANY AND THE GERMAN PEOPLE

March 1. To what Latin writers do we owe our knowledge of the early Germanic tribes, and by what name did the Romans call their country?

March 2. When and under whom was the first serious advance of the Roman arms beyond the Rhine made?

March 3. Name the German cities of to-day whose origin can be traced back to Roman inroads during the first two centuries of the Christian era.

March 4. A great irruption of Germanic tribes into Roman territory occurred in the third and fourth centuries. Name the tribes, and state where they for a time established themselves.

March 5. Whence came the Goths, and at what period were they scattered by the invasion of the Huns, under Atilla.

March 6. Give the dates of the Vandal conquests in Spain and Africa, and of the Vandal pillage of Rome.

March 7. When did the Saxon conquest of Britain begin, and how soon after was the Frank Kingdom under Clovis founded?

March 8. Indicate the extent of the conquests, on both sides of the Rhine, of Clovis and his sons.

March 9. When, and under what king of the Franks did the temporal authority of the Pope of Rome begin to show itself?

March 10. State what you know of Charlemagne's Wars with the Saxons, and assign the date of his restoration of the Roman Empire.

March 11. What was the treaty called which made partition of the Empire under Charles the Great's three grandsons, and separated the two Frankish elements into the German and the French nationalities.

March 12. What was the effect of this partition on the languages of Central and Southern Europe?

March 13. Hallam, the historian, states that to Henry the Fowler (founder of the Saxon line), and to the first Otto [A.D. 936–973], Germany was more indebted than to any sovereign since Charlemagne. Justify this.

March 14. Relate what you know of the struggle between the Papacy and the Empire, in the time of Henry IV. and Hildebrand (Gregory VII.).

March 15. What was the issue of the successive expeditions of Frederick Barbarossa into Italy, and what was their effect on the cities of Lombardy?

March 16. With all the gifts with which Frederick II. was endowed, why was it that he did so little for Germany? Explain the war-cries, "Guelph" and "Ghibelline," heard so often during this Emperor's reign.

March 17. State when and for what purposes the famous Hanseatic League was founded.

March 18. What influence was given to art and literature by the rulers of the Hohenstaufen dynasty?

March 19. What causes tended to the multiplication of petty principalities and states in the 13th century?

March 20. State what you know of the Reformation movement in Bohemia, and what occasioned the Hussite wars?

March 21. What was the issue of the war, conducted by Maximilian I., against the Swiss? Possessing great qualities, explain Maximilian's failure as a ruler.

March 22. Besides papal interference in civil affairs, what acts of misgovernment in the Church gave rise to the Reformation?

March 23. Against what practices and doctrines of the Roman Church did Luther chiefly contend?

March 24. What was the attitude of Charles V. towards the Reformation? What political as well as religious motives led to the disastrous rising of the people, known as the Peasants' War?

March 25. For what objects was the "League of Schmalkald" formed, and what detracted from its success?

March 26. Account on political as well as religious grounds for the "Thirty Years' War," and show how Germany suffered by it, and what were the gains of Sweden and France?

March 27. What were the political effects on the German Empire of the Peace of Westphalia? What did religion gain by the treaty?

March 28. Explain the attitude of Prussia in the "War of the Austrian Succession," and state how, through Frederick the Great's instrumentality, Austria lost Silesia.

March 29. What were the causes of the Seven Years' War [1756–1763]? Explain the coalition against Frederick, and show what he accomplished for Prussia.

March 30. Sketch the personal character of Frederick the Great and give instances of his administrative ability and military genius.

March 31. What were Prussia's motives in assenting to and sharing in the various partitions of Poland?

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